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ART. I.—ENGLAND IN SEARCH OF AN ALLY.

[BY W. M. BURWELL.]

If George Washington, the rebel, or Paul Jones, the pirate, could awake to compare the England and America of to-day, with the relative positions of the two countries, at the time a price was put upon their heads, they would realize the impossibility of placing any limits upon human progress. To compare the awe with which everything connected with the government and society of England was regarded by our grandfathers, with the ridiculous Englishman, which Chanfrau, or Jefferson puts upon the stage, would show the appalling audacity of Republicanism. Nay, to go beyond the substitution of a just judgment for prejudices, and take the actual and extraordinary progress of free institutions, we must be convinced that the discovery of America was not a greater addition to the physical map, than the results of well tried experiment has been to the scope of intellectual development. The capacity of a civilized government to get along with little or no government.—The apparent impossibility of exploding the republican boiler under any possible pressure of popular license. Improvements in moral, religious and educational systems, have reacted upon Europe and have made converts where once nothing but the most contemptuous scepticism existed. The late American war has occasioned amazement, and wrought conviction in the minds of many conservative statesmen of Europe. The valor and endurance of the Southern people was in-

consistent with the reports of their indolence and learning. The immense expenditures of the North, and their fierce enthusiasm for the Union was not to have been expected from a people charged with an undue indifference to personal honor, and accused of a parsimony bordering on meanness. The unexpected qualities demonstrated in each of these combatants have established a higher stand of national character. The Anglo Saxon of the South is more modest, sober and industrious, the American of the North has become bolder, and broader in his views. He takes less account of moving, and is, perhaps, more prompt in the vindication of his personal dignity. This average of qualities have formed a national characteristic which causes the American government and people to be held in higher estimation abroad. This is every where obvious—in the diplomatic and commercial respect in which American policy is held, as in the deference shown to Americans in all the capitals of Europe.

At the same time the influence of moral and material progress has been made manifest in the changed relations of the European States towards each other. From the time in which Peter the Great and the Great Frederic discovered that the worlds sceptre was held by the merchants, mechanics and capitalists, all the powers in Europe have devoted themselves to material competition. The Emperor of the French has confined his policy to receive the position which his great predecessor held; that of an arbiter of Europe. His present influence has been due principally to his successful cultivation of the means by which wealth and population may be acquired. Austria, blind and besotted by kingcraft and ministerial intrigue, has been hurled from her place as chief of northern Germany. She has surrendered her prejudices to the persuasive influence of improved projectiles. Prussia has realized the dream of him who fought almost single handed all the powers of Europe, she now presides at the councils of the Germanic principalities and is concentrating her railroads and steamships at her new ports on the German ocean and the Baltic. Spain has cast off Bourbonism, and the Papal sway has been restricted within the narrow limits of the Papal States. The advance on the part of these European powers to which we have made reference, has been wonderful, and their aspect and bearing towards Great Britain has been almost as

much changed as our own. Chief among the many extraordinary improvements in peace and warfare may be ranked the inventions of steam on railroads, and as applied to naval warfare.

We do not believe that any one of those powers possess nautical ability superior to that of Great Britain. Man for man, and gun for gun, we think that power would fight a ship with unsurpassed prowess We are satisfied that her coal and iron are even superior to those of most nations, but England is subject to the incalculable disadvantage of having to conduct her commerce with foreign or colonial possessions. Upon this commerce she is dependent, since her own soil does not produce enough food to maintain her own people. Hence, her commerce with the colonial possessions in three quarters of the globe is held by sufferance of the nations which might waylay and interrupt it while not having similar interests at sea, these nations would not fear retaliation.

If the confederate conflict did no more, it convinced the world that steamships are as much to be dreaded by the fleets of commerce as the eagle by the dove cotes. Three hundred ships captured, thirty millions of cargoes seized. Insurance raised on the mercantile marine of a powerful nation, and its ships driven to register under a neutral flag—these results mark the power of five or six confederate steamships of war, whose home was literally "on the rolling wave," since they had not a port, nor a ton of coal to be called their own. This cis, and citra—Atlantic progress has rendered proud Albion a little serious; she does not amuse herself quite so much about the eaters of frogs, or of sauer kraut, nor does she carricature or denounce American manners and morals quite so freely as she formally did. It has been now many years since she exercised the right of search upon American vessels, and President Johnson, but the other day, announced without contradiction, the doctrine which the American war of 1814, was fought to assert, but a doctrine to which the treaty of peace made no allusion. That doctrine was: "That a citizen may renounce at will his allegiance to one government and affirm it to another." Among the immediate evidences that England feels her position less commanding than formerly, is her unexampled comity with all foreign powers. She is more cautious of entangling alliances than our own Washington could have been. The haughty and aggressive policy of

Pitt and Canning, has been softened down to the complying diplomacy of Russel, Stanley and D'Israili. We have seen a "glimmering of reason" come over her treatment of Ireland. At the interposition of the United States she has extended an amnesty which in the days of Emmet and Fitzgerald no one had dared to request. The Crown and the Peers have yielded gracefully and wisely to the manhood suffrage of white men, as urged by Bright, and no manifestation has been made of a purpose to arrest the spread of popular intelligence. Beyond this we have observed that England has cultivated, even to a little flattery, the most cordial relations with the United States. Those States have much to forgive England. The prison ships of Dartmouth. The ten thousand seamen of New England impressed. The National Capitol burned. Her imperturbable neutrality during the late war, which went so far as to withold even a verbal interposition in the name of common brotherhood and humanity in one of the most destructive combats ever waged. Her hopes of recognition held out to the South, and the rich profits reaped from an exclusive trade with those States. The cold abandonment of their cause with the decline of their fortunes. These are the heads of a discourse that might be pronounced to show that England deserves but little sympathy from the United States. That she should forget all these causes of national dislike, proves that in making overtures for a more friendly feeling, and a closer connection with the United States, Great Britain feels the want of a stable ally, and wishes to conciliate, at least, our neutrality. The demand of our government for compensation for the Alabama damages, has been considered with exemplary patience. The cordial reception of the American minister, is an overture to a democratic alliance. The palinode pronounced by Dickens may have been intended to promote the sale of his novels, but the whole tone of the British parliament and Press is so respectful and deferential to America that we feel as if this nation was like a son, who had been kicked out of doors, and returned after long years with a fortune, to be received with the most affectionate demonstrations. But we remember that the English Cabinet has always attempted a great deal through her travelers. These often go abroad, affecting the boldest contempt for the institutions which they meet. They publish books fraught with the most daring comments. These works

published in every civilized tongue, often declare the policy of the English Government, which inspired them. We make no catalogue of such works, but from Elphinstones travels in the kingdom of Caubul, which preceded British expansion in India. Cummings' hunts in Africa, which have been followed by British rule in Australia, Tasmania, and Queensland. Denham and Clapperton, and Livingstone's exploration of one part of Africa, and Speke's discoveries in another, with Harris' mission to Abyssinia, and a score of others, British writers have always preceded British merchants, British soldiers, and British treaties. We are about to mention one of these writers who, has recently honored the United States in his mission to all the lands in which Englishmen, or the descendants of Englishmen are seated. We have decided to notice this work because its indications of purpose seem to coincide with the international policy which we have upon such reasoning as is given, attributed to England.

Mr. Charles Wentworth Dilke, has, within the present year published a work whose title is explanatory of its purpose. It reads: "Greater Britain: a record of travel in English-speaking countries, during 1866 and '67."

The initial proposition laid down in this work is—

1. That the Saxon race and its descendants are destined to rule the nations of the world.

2. That the English people and their descendants, represent the Saxon race.

3. That all Saxon progress is the progress of England.

We have no disposition to dispute the assertion that the Saxon will be the dominant race. The reason seems to be that he is inspired by what this author calls "a hope for his private future." Apparently this race pouring originally from the head spring of humanity, wherever that may be, has never halted. For centuries it has been pressing towards the more genial and fertile lands, and has occupied and planted itself in those regions which combine food production, health and longevity. Moreover, where climate is temperate, even if the soil be unproductive, Saxon enterprise brings from other countries the fruits of their soil, or mines, in exchange for the mechanical, or commercial acquisition of Saxon intellect and energy. It is to this capacity to adapt the mental and phy-

sical resources of the race to the local necessities of the country which they occupy, that has built the dykes, ships and shops of England and Holland, and which have so rapidly wrested the continent of America from preoccupant races, and even from the dominion of primeval nature. We have always thought Robinson Crusoe, the best individual illustration of the Saxon race. From a farmers son he became a hatter, a shoe-maker and tailor, a boat-builder, a carpenter, a herdsman; he was a governor, and we think, taught Will Atkins some very sound doctrine of religion and morality, besides this, he vindicated the dominant tendency of his race by fighting very bravely, and by reducing a savage to bondage, and teaching him how to become a respectable and very useful *servant*. While, therefore, we admit all the qualities claimed for the Saxon race, we are by no means disposed to admit, that its capacity or its enterprise were concentrated in England alone, or that the exercise of these innate qualities was suspended elsewhere. It is very true that Americans speak the English language, and are governed in good part by the common law, but we should not forget that our Republican institutions were won against the resistance of England. That our voluntary support of religion, and the system of popular education, were doubted and distrusted. That we neither copied the king, nor the nobility, nor the established Church, nor the property suffrage system. These were all original. All the distinctive institutions of America were ridiculed and condemned by England. She has fought them at home. Now suppose we take away all the monarchical institutions of England, with all the social customs which we have enumerated. What would remain to distinguish England from the United States? Yet, the success of the Saxon in America, aided as he has been by other immigrant nationalities, is due to these institutions, adopted under the exigencies which surround him. Among the institutions given us by Great Britain was that of slavery. Slaves were sent by England to America to produce certain staples of luxury, which civilization required. Few things have contributed so much to the progress of America as that labor which had produced an annual crop worth latterly, some two hundred millions of exportable values. It is well known that the United States exported little else during its entire history, except these products. For eighty years or more the proceeds of these

staples have been accumulated in the United States, and have aided in the great historical results which are before the world. It is certainly proper to say that but for these exportable values there could have been very little immigration imported into the United States. In what then—except in a common composite ancestry—does the United States stand indebted to great Britain? "They planted by your care?" asked Col. Barre in Parliament. "They throve by your neglect." Expelled—exiled—persecuted—ridiculed—into distinctive institutions, it is a little singular that Americans should be claimed at this day as Englishmen. It is the *lucus a non lucendo* of the poet, a grove where there was not a bush to be seen. If the master from whom the apprentice, Robinson Crusoe, ran away, had claimed the whole merit of his remarkable enterprises, it would have been as reasonable as for Mr. Charles Wentworth Dilke, to take possession of American civilization in the name of Milton, Shakespeare, and perhaps, of himself. Indeed, we have often thought that the Northern States of this Union owe their success more to the example of Holland, than to that of England. England denounced a Republic. Holland established that form of government. The persecuted Pilgrims acquired shipping and mechanical employments from their Dutch hosts during their sojourn among them. The great New York canal which did more than everything else to upset the sectional equilibrium of the United States, and transfer its control to a new power, was founded by men of Dutch descent, in a State settled by the Dutch.

We are by no means disposed to disparage England, still less to express any hostility towards her. We are proud of a connection with a powerful and liberal people. We think that we have contributed our part to the renown of the common race, and that the virtue, courage and progress of our immediate ancestors and contemporaries is worthy a reciprocal respect.

But when Mr. Dilke comes to take possession of American civilization in the name of England, before he engraves his copper plate, and raises his column and cross in the name of England, it would be well that he should observe the following statistics. The population of the colonies was at the close of the war of Independence, in round numbers, three millions. The population of the United States is now in round numbers 38,000,000; now if the population

had doubled every thirty-three years, by rate of natural increase it would not amount to more than twenty millions. Have then the Celts and the Latin races no share in forming the institutions of America? Are they not entitled to a share of the merit, for having created such wealth and such renown? and if such be the obvious share that those Celtic races which produced Stonewall and Andrew Jackson, and U. S. Grant, have contributed to the progress of America, let us see how much England herself owes to races other than the Saxon, for her institutions and her influence. England was conquered by the Romans, from them she derived much of her language and literature, their military discipline, and somewhat of architecture. She was invaded by the Danes, and from them she adopted her maritime system. The Normans overrun and confiscated the property of England, and her chivalric ideas and aristocracy traces back to the roll of Battle Abbey. Many of her customs came from Normandy. Her domestic code was given by the Saxons, her religion and equity jurisdiction was the gift of the Papal authority. Her mechanics were in good part imported from the Continent. Much of her military success has been due to the Celtic race of Ireland and Scotland. No people excel either of these in courage. England conquered both Ireland and Scotland by her superior capital, mechanical skill, and means of transportation. There are no stock races superior to the Irish and Scotch, and if they are not originally the same with the Saxon, the admixture obliterates the difference. Such is our experience in America. When, indeed, we trace the reaction of American experiment upon English institutions, we find that both in the past and in the present, England has been more indebted to foreign countries than America has been to England.

For the purpose of thoroughly comprehending the South the traveler pays one days board at an hotel kept by soldiers, in "the rebel volunteers." A body which, by the way, had no existence. "From the windows of the car" he could see there was no population or property on the line of the road, and improves the opportunity to boast the superior population of New England. From the same standpoint he learns that "the mines in Virginia!—are deserted which were worked by the very Indians who were driven from the land as savages an hundred years ago." We suspect this supervisor of civilization confounds the Appamattocks with the Aztecs.

Sixty miles of fortifications occasion no comment, except "that it required no long interview with Grant, to understand their capture." He "had not been ten minutes in his office, at Washington, before he saw the secret of an unvarying success lay in his unflinching determination." He mentions the possible capture of Richmond by the cavalry raid of Dahlgren, says that this was prevented by the chance fire of a company of boys from the foundries, who confessed themselves, that "one minute more and they'd have run." The city was, however, saved by the fact that the Federal cavalry ran first. He deplores the mortality of the negroes, 5000 of whom died "fighting as gallantly as they fought every where else during the war." He takes no account of the destruction of whites.

"The slave owning cavaliers, are the men most truly guilty of the late attempt by their descendants to create an empire founded on disloyalty and oppression, but within sight of the old church of theirs, thirty-three miles of Federal outworks stand as a monument of how the attempt was crushed out by the children of their New England brother colonists." When we remember that these cavaliers were among the most loyal subjects England ever had, that the New Englanders were expelled from England for their hostility to the monarchy, and that the slaves were bought with English money and sent in English ships, some idea may be formed of the intelligence and impartiality of this historian. He cannot pass without a fling at the F. F. V's, which now means the "First Fighters of Virginia," and says: "There is a stroke of justice in the fact that the Virginian oligarchy have ruin themselves in ruining their State; but the gaming-hells of Farobankopolis, as Richmond once was called, have much to answer for." As an additional specimen of the accuracy of this author, he mentions the bronze statue of the first President, "erected jointly by all the States of the then Union." He refers to the statues erected by the legislature of Virginia. "In the South you must believe nothing you are told." "The negroes themselves are very distrustful of the honesty of their old masters."

THE NEGROES.

Mr. Dilke, obviously prefers negroes to that portion of the English race settled in the Southern States. He says:

"There is reason to believe that the American negroes will justify

the hopes of their best friends; they have made the best of every chance given them yet. They made good soldiers, they are eager to learn their letters, they are steady at their work. In Barbadoes they are industrious and well conducted citizens; in La Plata they are exemplary citizens. [He says nothing of Jamaica or St. Domingo.] In America, as yet, the colored laborer has no motive to be industrious." On the other hand he writes "that the slaves were lazy, thriftless, unchaste, thieves, is true, but it is as slaves and not as negroes, that they were all these things." Yet, as negroes, in Africa or America, these things are more than true. Every epithet used is more true of the negro than it is of the slave. Yet, to show the cowardly venom of this itinerant slanderer, he says· "After all, the effects of slavery upon the slave are less terrible than upon the master." Again he draws on the conversation with General Grant, who "assured him of the great aptness of soldiering displayed by the negro troops. In battle they displayed extraordinary courage, but if their officers were picked off they could not stand a charge, no more he said could their Southern masters. The power of standing fire after the loss of leaders, is possessed only by regiments when a private is as good as his captain and colonel, such as the Northwestern and New England volunteers." The following random expressions show the writer as much wanting in logic as in veracity :

"Superstition, everywhere the handmaid of ignorance, is rife among the black plantation hands. It is thought that the punishment with which the shameful rites of Obi-worship have been visited has proved, even in the city of New Orleans, insufficient to prevent them. Charges of witchcraft are as common in Virginia as in Orissa: in the Carolinas, as in Central India, the use of poison is often sought to work out the events foretold by some noted sorceress. In no direction can the matter be followed out to its conclusions without bringing us face to face with the sad fact, that the faults of the plantation negro are every one of them traceable to the vices of the slavery system, and that the Americans of to-day are suffering beyond measure for evils for which our forefathers are responsible."

Now, if Obi-worship, witchcraft and poison as practiced in Africa and Asia, are imported into America with the negroes, how can they be "traceable to the vices of slavery?" And if these institutions have been suppressed, totally or in part, by the English colonists who have held the negro in bondage, why condemn these men for these horrible superstitions which they did not inculcate, and which they have endeavored with partial success to prevent? We pursue these rambling and contradictory speculations. "The negroes have hardly much chance in Virginia against the Northern capitalists,

provided with white labor. For the present the negroes will be masters in seven of the rebel States; "the States of Louisiana, Mississippi, Florida and South Carolina, promise to be wholly theirs." "Already they are flocking to places where they have a majority of the people and can control the municipalities and defend themselves, if necessary, by force; but even if the Southerners of the coast desert their country, the negroes will not have it to themselves, unless nature declares that they shall. New England will pour in with capital and energy, and cultivate the land by free black or by coolie labor, if either will pay. If they do pay, competition will force the remaining blacks to work or starve."

But, after having shown that all the planters have quitted the country, that New Englanders will bring in white laborers and coolies and force the negroes to work or starve, this Englishman thus shows his preference for negroes, wicked, superstitious and ignorant as he has represented them. "It is clear that the Southern negroes must be given a decided notice in the appointment of the legislatures, by which they are to be ruled, or that the North must be prepared to back up by force of opinion, or if need be, by force of arms, the Federal Executive when it insists on the Civil Rights bill being set in action in the South. Government through negroes is the only way to avoid government through an army, which would be dangerous to the freedom of—the North. It is safer for America to trust her slaves than to trust her rebels—safer to enfranchise than to pardon."

"A reading and writing basis for the suffrage in the Southern States is an absurdity. Coupled with pardons to the rebels, it would allow the "boys in gray"—the soldiers of the Confederacy—to control nine States of the Union; it would render the education of the freemen hopeless. for the moment it would entirely disenfranchise the negroes in six States, whereas it is exactly for the moment that negro suffrage is in these States necessary; while, if the rebels were admitted to vote, and the negroes excluded from the poll, the Southern representatives, united with the Copp rhead wing of the Democratic party, might prove to be strong enough to repudiate the Federal debt. This is one of a dozen dangers.

"An education basis for the suffrage, though pretended to be impartial, would be manifestly aimed against the negroes, and would perpetuate the antipathy of color to which the war is supposed to have put an end. To education, such a provision would be a death-blow. If the negroes were to vote as soon as they could read, it is certain that the planters would take good care that they never should read at all.

"That men should be able to examine into the details of politics is not entirely necessary to the working of representative government. It is sufficient that they should be competent to select men to do it for them. In the highest form of representative government, where all the electors are both intelligent, educated, and alive to the politics of the time, then the member returned must tend more and more to be a delegate. That has always been the case with the Northern and

Western members in America, but never with those returned by the Southern States: and so it will continue, whether the Southern elections be decided by negroes or by "mean whites."

All this means that these Southern descendant, of Englishmen, must be denied all political rights, and put under control of negroes, The attempt to set the negroes up as the rulers of the white, may bring on military rule, it may even endanger the freedom of the North, but it must be done. The danger of repudiation of the public debt is a prominent consequence of the rebel rule. It is an important fact in the eyes of an Englishman. The *naivete* with which the total want of qualification among the negro voters is admitted, is instructive of the motive with which this book is written. It seems not necessary to the workings of representative government that the voters should be able to examine into the details of politics. "It is sufficient that they should be able to select men to do it for them." The fallacy and absurdity of such reasoning need not be explained to any except to persons who have made up their minds that those descendants of Englishmen who inhabit the Southern States of the Union as unworthy every right of humanity, and ought to be put under the heel of the negro.

THE SAXON AGAINST THE CELT.

Apparently the British government having been mistaken in supposing the Southern States the more powerful section, now tenders her alliance to the North, as being more like England, and as being the more apt to maintain English ascendancy. We still assume that this tourist is traveling in the interest of the British government, as his predecessors have done in other countries. In this point of view he next takes up New York. This city he says "is still less English than is Boston, Philadelphia or Chicago, her people are as little Saxon as her streets." "Once Southern, with the brand of slavery, deeply imprinted in the foreheads of her foremost men since the defeat of the rebellion. New York has to the eye been cosmopolitan as any city of the Levant." This is a pretty confident assertion from one who had never seen New York before the war, but as Offenbach has it, *la maturite est clairvoyant*; and to the experienced traveler all periods record the same subject. "The New York un-English tone is not Batavian. Neither the sons of of the men who once lived in these houses, nor the Germans whose names are now upon the doors, nor, for the matter of that, we Eng-

lish, who claim New York as the second of our towns, are the to-day's New Yorkers." "Of all the Northern States New York was alone a dead weight upon the loyal people during the war of the rebellion." Considering that New York must have sent something upwards of an hundred regiments into the war. That she fitted out a large part of the naval armament, lost an immense maritime interest by the belligerent recognition of England, and negotiated the whole financial resources of the Federal Government, this is a very bold told assertion upon the part of this tadpole Republican. He complains moreover, that the New Yorkers do not send, as the oldest New England families have done their children, to the State schools—the New Yorkers "send their boys to Cambridge, Berlin Heidelberg, any where, rather than to the colleges of their native land. They leave it to learned, pious Boston to supply the West with teachers, and to keep up Yale and Harvard." He would be rather surpised to learn that there is fifty per cent. of the children of Massachusetts, who do not go to the free schools at all. But he has still other charges against New York. "Apart from nationality there is danger to free government with the growth of New York city, and in the gigantic fortunes of New Yorkers." Sober men are are to be found even in New York, who will tell you that this city out-does Paris in every form of profligacy, as completely as the French capital out-herods imperial Rome." For the "un-English," turbulent, and rebellious, tendencies of New York the Irish are held principally responsible. He has said that New York is an Irish town—he adds: "It is no unfair attack upon the Irish, to represent them as somewhat dangerous inhabitants for mighty cities. Of course, the 60,000 persons arrested yearly, in New York, three-fourths are alien born, two-thirds of these are Irish. No where else in all America, are the Celts, at present, masters of a city government—no where is there such corruption. The purity of the government of Melborne, (founded principally by convicts) a city more Democratic than New York, proves that the fault does not lie in Democracy. *It is the universal opinion of Americans that the Irish alone* are responsible." The assault upon the Irish immigrants, is as base as it is absurd and unreasonable. This velocipede traveler did not pause long enough to learn that the Irish are not masters of the city government of New York. The Republican party is domi-

nant in New York, and holds the right to appoint the police, the health authorities, and, we think, the street commissioners. Not a dollar can be appropriated by the city, unless the tax necessary to raise the revenue, shall have been legalized by these Republican State authorities. That there is corruption in New York is not doubted, but why charge it upon the Irish? It must be practiced with the corrupt assent of the State authorities. Notwithstanding in one paragraph he says the Irish have corrupted New York, he says: "The Irish numerically predominate in New York, but we have no experience as to what should be the moral features of an Irish city, for Dublin has always been in English hands, possibly that in which New York appears to be cosmopolitan [that is, we suppose its corruption] is merely Celtic."

There are many subsequent flings at the Irish. He says, "in spite of their possession of much political power and the entire city government of several great towns, the Irish in America, are neither physically nor morally well off. Whatever may be the case at some future day, they still find themselves politically in English hands." "From the Cabinet, from Congress, from every office high or low, not controlled by the Fenian vote. The Irish are systematically excluded." Through drink, through gambling, and the other vices of homeless, thriftless men, they are soon reduced to beggary, and moral as they are by nature, the best are nevertheless supplying America with that class which she never before possessed—a criminal and pauper class." Of 10,000 people sent to jail each year, 5,000 are Irish born. In Chicago, out of the 3598 convicts of the last year, only 84 were native born Americans." Now, men are sent to jail in Boston for fighting or getting drunk. These are Irish frailties which have not impaired confidence in the integrity of that people. In Chicago out of 3958 convicts "only 84 were native born Americans." The inference here is, that these convicts were all Irish. Statistics teach us that the immigration into Chicago is derived from other countries than Ireland. We have always regarded it unwise and unjust in England to treat the Irish as if they were slaves, and to exclude them from a fair share in administering the government for which they have fought and paid so much, but to follow them into the new world, where persecution and

want have driven them, and stigmatize them as the corrupters and disturbers of society, is a malignant blow which we would not expect even the ministry of England to sanction. It occurred to us, that if this missionary, who hopes to add America to England, would recommend to his government, to offer higher inducements for the Irish to remain at home, it would better attain his wish to make America all English. He, however, prefers an wholesale and indiscriminate defamation of a whole people. This does not embarrass us who appreciate the native worth, and sympathize with the oppression of the Irish. We care not how many may seek this Southern country. We would merely hint to Mr. Dilke and his employers, that the run of a steamer between Ireland and the United States is about nine days. The time occupied by a Federal delegate passing between New Orleans and Washington City used to be twenty-five days. There are no physical impediments to a representation of Ireland in the American Congress, and such friends of England, as this Mr. Dilke, are pursuing precisely the right course to bring about its annexation.

ENGLISH ALLIANCE WITH ENGLAND.

The purpose to make an alliance with New England, against all other varieties of the English race in America, and especially against the Irish, creeps out from under every disquisition of Mr. Dilke, on every subject. He says: "It is impossible to spend much time in New England, without becoming aware that the people of the six New England States love us from the heart," and also, "however it may be, this much is clear, that the humblest township in New England reflects more truly the America of the past, the most chaotic village of Nebraska portrays more fully the hopes and tendencies of the America of the future than do this huge State and city." And speaking of the views around New York, he says: "The vices are as Southern as the people. We have not yet found America." The Republican majority of the presidential elections of 1862 and 1864 has been increased by the success of the Federal arms borne mainly by the Republicans of New England and the West.." The key to all this soft sawder is found in the fact that the American Union having been reconstructed, and the cost of American cotton having been more than doubled by the overthrow of disciplined

labor, it seems that that portion of the English people represented by Mr. Dilke, proposes to change their national tactics and to take sides with New England in any national or international differences that may arise as against all people of other races or sections. It is but just to Mr. Dilke, to say, that he proposes to take the negroes into this purely English partnership, the style of which would, we presume, be "John Bull, Quashee & Co."

He pursues his deferential expressions towards the United States. The Alabama claims, he desires should be adjusted, because they show "that there exists between Britain and America, a bar to perfect friendship—a ground for a future quarrel." He would not have the etiquette of the difference between a special and general arbitration, prevent a settlement. No loss of dignity could be set against "the frightful hurtfulness to the race, and to the cause of freedom, of war between Britain and America." "It would be to the eternal disgrace of civilization, that we should set to work to cut our brothers throats upon a point of etiquette." We rather like this humanitarian. He saw one part of the English race cutting the throats of the other without the intervention of a trans-Atlantic sigh. He moved over the plains, ensanguined by the only unmixed blood derived from Englishmen. His only comment was a sneer, and the only emotion manifested, was for that race which the English has every where despised and placed in bondage. Is it not a fair inference from his text, that the repugnance expressed by Mr. Dilke to "cutting our brothers throats" sprung from some little apprehension of his own? He labors to show that "England was *not* with the rebels during the late war." But his defense is not very comprehensible. The ruling classes of England, perhaps were, "but our rulers don't represent us any more than your Thirty-ninth Congress represented George Washington." This is no reply, it is not even a respectable retort. The North knows that the English government, and a large amount of English capital and industry did promote and profit by the war. The South knows that these interests did encourage the hope of intervention or aid. Both sections know, that while the ruling classes of England did not offer even the intervention of humanity, those masses of which Mr. Dilke is the traveling representative, stood neutral. They neither remonstrated against the partiality, nor inactivity of their government. From

these causes, both sections now know, that England would have been rejoiced if the cotton culture had been destroyed here to be transplanted to Asia, and would not have cried her eyes out, if, disgusted with the failure of free government, the whole English race, in America had returned to their allegiance to the mother country. This neutral policy naturally incensed both sections of the United States. Boston did not like the destruction of millions of shipping and cargoes by English built privateers, nor did she relish the millions of profits upon English goods exchanged against Southern cotton. The South did not admire the selfishness of a nation which profited by its sufferings, which held out vague hopes of intervention, the sole effect of which was to prolong its own profits, and which retired from the scene without even turning down its thumb to bespeak the clemency of the victor, over the victim. Whatever Mr. Dilke may say about the affection of America for England, it has been, in our opinion, utterly extinguished in the South, and it would not prevent the North from quadrupling the tariff, or from acquiring Canada, if the opportunity offered.

POLICY OF THE RADICAL REPUBLICANS.

Having decided to take the side of New England, the author has adopted the political construction of its dominant party. We thus have an opportunity of hearing from behind the curtain, the programme of the leading Republicans. Here is the definition of party doctrine :

"Meanwhile the Radicals go on, not wasting their time in words, but passing through the House and over the President's veto the legislation necessary for the reconstruction of free government —with their illogical, but thoroughly English good sense, avoiding all talk about constitutions that are obsolete, and laws that it is impossible to enforce, and pressing on steadily to the end that they have in view—equal rights for all men, free government as soon as may be. The one thing to regret is that the Republicans have not the courage to appeal to the national exigencies merely, but that their leaders are forced by public opinion to keep up the sham of constitutionalism. No one in America seems to dream that there can be any thing to alter in the "matchless Constitution," which was framed by a body of slave-owners, filled with the narrowest aristocratic prejudices, for a country which has since abolished slavery, and become as democratic as any nation in the world.

"The system of presidential election and the Constitution of the Senate are matters to which the Republicans will turn their attention as soon as the country is rested from the war. It is not impos-

sible that a lifetime may see the abolition of the Presidency proposed, and carried by the vote of the whole nation. If this be not done, the election will come to be made directly by people, without the intervention of the Electoral College. The Senate, as now constituted, rests upon the States, and that State Rights are doomed, no one can doubt who remembers that of the population of New York State less than half are native born New Yorkers. What concern can the cosmopolitan moiety of her people have with the State Rights of New York? * * * * * * *

"A party which takes for its watchword, "The national good," will always beat the Constitutionalists."

We infer from these extracts that the purposes of this ultra Republican are—First, The repeal of the "sham" of a Federal Constitution. Second, The obliteration of statehood. Third, The abolition of the Federal Executive. Fourth, The government, by universal suffrage, based on the universal equality of all men, not convicted of crime. There is one moral deducible from this exposition. It is, that the English race—so-called—is confined to the old Atlantic States. That the contest between them thus encouraged by England, or by Mr. Dilke, tends to give the balance of power to the other races which occupy the continent. That the repeal of the constitutional compact between States, tends to govern by numbers. That the doctrine making each man an equal citizen, must be followed by the abrogation of all institutions which tend to protect either property or local interests. Heretofore, the application of those Radical doctrines, has been very advantageous to New England. But this foreign convert to this attractive doctrine, has made one application which is inevitable. It is this: "The Senate as now constituted, rests upon the States, and that State Rights are doomed, no one can doubt." In a subsequent part of this work, speaking of Republican progress in Victoria, the author says: "Whether the blow comes from within or without, there is every probability that the upper house will shortly disappear, and the advice of Milton and Franklin be followed, in having but a single Chamber."

CHANGE OF SENATORIAL RATIO.

Now, how long does Mr. Dilke think it will be before the Radical doctrines of which he speaks, will be applied to the New England States? There must always be a question of sectional power pending in the United States. The South has been put in the guard house for the last three years, because her

interests differed from those of the majority. Do not those of New England, now differ in like manner? Undoubtedly in protection, in the carrying trade, and in the direction of of our foreign policy. Let us then see how far retaining this principle of State Rights, on which senatorial representation is alone based, tends to sustain New England in her contest for sectional supremacy. The six New England States, contained in 1860, a little more than three millions of people. The two small States of New Jersey and Delaware, contain less than two hundred and fifty thousand The population of the Union being about thirty-one millions and a half in the whole. If we assume the whole representation of the House of Representatives of the United States at one, for each hundred thousand, it would make three hundred and one members. This would be the basis established by giving equal representation to all native or naturalized citizens, without regard to color or past condition. Upon this basis the five New England States and the two small States of Delaware and New Jersey, making together, eight, would be entitled to but thirty members, or just one-tenth of the aggregate numerical power. When, however, we take the whole number of senatorial representatives at seventy-four members, it is found that these eight States—so-called—have a delegation of sixteen members. They wield a little more than one fourth of the whole senatorial power. The influence of this power, as a veto upon competing or independent propositions is very great. It could readily lay a Western proposition on the table, unless an increase of the tariff were permitted. It has never occurred to this flying Englishman that the State Rights, or State representative principle protected New England, more than it did Virginia, and the whole South, but yet it will be found so. The application of the Radical doctrine, as promulgated by Mr. Dilke, is correctly stated. Not improbably it may be carried out from quarters whence it is least expected. There are two modes by which this disproportionate representation may be equalized or overthrown. 1, By the adoption of an enlarged and uniform numerical ratio of representation for the Senate. We will suppose that basis, to be one Representative in the House of Representatives for every one hundred thousand population, with one Senator for every five hundred thousand population. This mathematical rule is in accordance with the principle of man-

hood suffrage, and would at once reduce the eight States named, to one-tenth of the representative power in both bodies of the Federal Legislature. 2, Another mode of effecting the same object will be to go on christening new territories, and giving each of them a couple of Federal Senators, to cut their territorial teeth upon, and admitting a few batches of Insular and continental States south of us. A third will be the Australian plan of abolishing the Senate, altogether. This may be expected when the Executive shall be suppressed. We repeat that it is not given to this velocipedist, *percurrere terras atque mares*, and pronounce what is, or what is not to come from the overthrow of the constitutional compact of the United States.

While Mr. Dilke claims all the success of American enterprise as a perquisite of English example, he has taken care to ally himself with the stronger party in politics, and to denounce the minority without reservation. He takes sides with the most radical section of the Republican party, and adopts the views which were distorted by the asperities of civil war. "To New England," says Mr. Dilke, "is chiefly due the making of America a God-fearing nation." "The States of the Union owe so huge a debt of gratitude to New England, that on this score alone they may refrain from touching her with sacrilegious hands." America can never forget the steady heroism of New England, during the great struggle for national existence." He seems to have learned, however, that New England did not approve of the last war against Great Britain. "There was a time, as England knows, when the thinking men of Boston, morally seceded from their country's councils." "The country from which these men seceded was not, however the America of to-day, it was the Union which South Carolina ruled." For a traveler, who runs through a country within a few months, it is certainly very rash to adopt such positive views, and to venture such partial statements. We do not except to his making the statement on the Republican side, taken as the representation obviously is, from the dictation of its most embittered partisans. It only constitutes an objection to the credibility of a witness who testifies upon such limited knowledge of the historical facts. But his censure of the Southern States is far more sweeping. Its weight becomes insignificant when it is known that Mr. Dilke, never went further South than Pe-

tersburg. He seems to rejoice in the devastation which he witnessed after the close of a bloody war. He has no word of sympathy for the woes of a ruined people, no throb of involuntary admiration for a courage, and endurance, beyond comparison. His pride of race is not excited by the genius and virtue which conducted the defence of a weak people against one far more powerful. He seems wholly inspired with the purpose of flattering the pride of the conqueror by debasing the cause of the conquered. We give a few extracts from his description of the Southern people. He arrives at Norfolk: "At last, turning a corner, I came on a hotel, and as a consequence, on a bar, and its crowd of swaggering whites—Johnny Rebs—all you might see by the breadth of their brims, for across the Atlantic, a broad brim denotes less the man of peace, than the ex-member of a Southern guerilla band, Morgan's, Mosby's, or Stuart's. No Southerner will wear the Yankee stove pipe hat; a panama or palmetto for him, he says, though he keeps to his long black coat, that rules from Maine to the Rio Grande. These Southerners were all alike—all were upright, tall and heavily moustached, and I looked instinctively for the baldrick and rapier." Here is a specimen of composition that would have become Mrs. Nickleby or Flora. The staggering out of one parenthesis into another, shows the rapidity and breadth of observation of this traveler. Walking into a city on his way to his hotel. He comes inevitably upon a bar, surrounded by swaggering whites, ascertains that across the Atlantic, a broad brimmed hat denotes an ex-member of a guerilla band, and classes Gen. Stuart, of the Confederate army with partisan officers. At the same time he decides that no Southerner will wear any other hat than a panama or palmetto. He forms an opinion of these people that they were all alike. He looks for the baldrick and the rapier, extinct emblems, we may presume of the free booter, and required no second glance to assure him that as far as Norfolk was concerned, "the last idea that enters the mind of a Southerner is that of doing work." We doubt whether an opinion so wholesale and off-hand, was ever formed of a city of seventy-five thousand population, by looking into a single bar room for a few minutes. We cannot help remembering that another traveler who pronounced all the landlords in Germany red headed, and all their wives scolds, upon the testimony of single specimens of these classes, encountered

where he stopped to change post horses. Mr. Dilke soon, however, gets into society, and learns the following expressions of public opinion about the war:

"You're a Britisher. Now, all that they tell you's darned lies. We're just as secesh as we ever was, only so many's killed that we can't fight—that's all, I reckon." "We ain't going to fight the North and West again," said an ex colonel of rebel infantry; "next time we fight, 'twill be us and the West against the Yanks. We'll keep the old flag then, and be darned to them" "If it hadn't been for the politicians, we shouldn't have seceded at all, I reckon: we should just have kept the old flag and the Constitution, and the Yanks would have seceded from us. Reckon we'd have let 'em go." "Wall, boys, s'pose we liquor," closed in the colonel, shooting out his old quid, and filling in with another. "We'd have fought for a lifetime if the cussed Southerners hadn't deserted like they did." I asked who these "Southerners" were to whom such disrespect was being shown. "You didn't think Virginia was a Southern State, sir. We didn't go to secede at all; it was them blasted Southerners that brought it on us. First, they wouldn't give a command to General Robert E. Lee, then they made us do all the fighting for 'em, and then, when the pinch came, they left us in the lurch. Why, sir, I saw three Mississippi regiments surrender without a blow—yes sir: that's right down good whisky; jess you sample it."

At this point "the whistle sounded, of the steamer from which he had landed, and he hurried off, not without fear lest some of the group should shoot after me." There was little danger of such a waste of powder. He calls them a pack of mean whites, but finds their "views those dominant in all ranks at Richmond, and up the country in Virginia." "After all," he says, "the Southern planters are not the South." He subsequently says that the great planters were a few thousand in number. "They are gone to Canada, England, Jamaica, California, Colorado, Texas. The "mean whites" are the South:"

"The South for political purposes is composed of the 'mean whites,' of the Irish of the towns, and of the Southwestern men—Missourians, Kentuckians, and Texans—fiercely anti-Northern, without being in sentiment what we should call Southern, certainly not representatives of the 'Southern Chivalry.' The 'mean whites,' or 'poor trash,' are the whites who are not planters—members of the slaveholding race who never held a slave—white men looked down upon by negroes. It is a necessary result of the despotic government of one race by another that the poor members of the dominant people are universally despised: the 'destitute Europeans' of Bombay, the 'white loafers' of the Punjaub, are familiar cases. Where slavery exists, the 'poor trash' class must inevitably be both large and wretched: primogeni-

ture is necessary to keep the plantations sufficiently great to allow for the payment of overseers and the supporting in luxury of the planter family, and younger sons and their descendants are not only left destitute, but debarred from earning their bread by honest industry, for in a slave country labor is degrading."

He is surprised that the Southern people are what he terms "mean whites," that he says, "the Southern planters—who have all emigrated at present—were gentlemen, possessed of many aristocratic virtues, along with every aristocratic vice:"

"But to each planter there were nine 'mean whites,' who, though grossly ignorant, full of insolence, given to the use of the knife and pistol upon the slightest provocation, were, until the election of Lincoln to the presidency, as completely the rulers of America as they were afterward the leaders of the rebellion."

We have no doubt that the most ultra Radical in America would admit the ignorance and injustice of this tirade. Before he had twenty-four hours in a State which he does not class as Southern, but a border State, he has passed judgment upon its society, its intelligence, its patriotism, and its political history. He pauses in this invective, to say, that he refused a letter of introduction to "Jeff Davis," and to quote a confidential conversation with General Grant which we republish as throwing the unreserved freedom of observation on the part of that eminent man, when conversing with distinguished foreigners. General Grant's first words to Mr. Dilke, were, "glad to meet you—what have you seen?" Answer. "The Capitol." General Grant. "Go at once and see the Monitors." This advice we presume the traveler took, and departed. So Grant got rid of him for that time. But the intimacy continued, and this famous man so reticent with others, became quite garrulous. He goes on to narrate another conversation equally pertinent and piquant. He afterwards said to me in words that photograph not only the Monitors, but Grant, "you can batter away at those things for a month and do no good." General Grant evidently preferred that Dilke should batter away at the Monitors, than bore away at him.

We need not follow this missionary in his rapid transit through Kansas, Utah and California, he merely pauses to take possession of all that is energetic and successful, in the name of Queen Victoria, omitting no opportunity to refer to the "rowdy South," and the "long haired Georgian, who dressed in a green and gold uniform," is recruiting for Fenianism. Nothing, however, can induce him to utter

a word against any other section of the United States. He thus apologizes for California, in her opposition to a paper currency: "Strongly Unionist in feeling, as were California, Oregon and Nevada, during the rebellion, to have forced greenbacks upon them, would have been almost more than their loyalty would have borne. In the severest taxation they were prepared to acquiesce, but paper money they believed to be a downright robbery, and the invention of the devil." And yet, we have heard Texas stigmatized as rebellious, for the same preference for gold over paper.

We dismiss this traveler for the present, we shall subsequently take up his voyage in other lands into which Englishmen have been driven, by the laws or policy of their mother country.

ART. II—THE CREATOR OF THE CHEMISTRY OF THE DAY;

Translated for DeBow's Review, from the German of Professor Dr. O. L. Erdmann, at Leipzig.

[BY GUSTAVUS KRUEBBE.]

"Knowledge is power!" Nowhere the truth of those words is more properly adapted than in the contest between man and the surrounding nature. They threaten the powers of nature, the existence of mankind, and operate in a destructive manner against all his endeavors. But the more we search to understand nature, acquiring knowledge of her laws, the better we will be enabled to contend with her, to protect ourselves against her, and to make her subject to our will. The existence of man, which in his primitive periods of development is hardly anything more than a continual contest for life, only obtains a higher value when he becomes more and more master of Nature.

History relates much of the Great of by-gone times and of their accomplishments. Most of those deeds were performed on the battlefield, and seldom rolled the chariots of triumph but over the walks of destroyed happiness.

Much less does history tell of those who fought on the fields of science, against the dark night of ignorance and conceit, of those heroes whose conquest enlarged the realm of truth and thus scattered broadcast the seeds of happiness for the present and future. It is to those heroes of Science we are indebted for the civilization of the day. One of the most renowned among them is the man whose life and efficiency I shall endeavor to depict here.

His name is LAVOISIER, commonly called the Creator of modern Chemistry. This is correct, but it is necessary to illustrate the meaning, in order not to misconstrue its proper adaptation to our subject.

Every era is the child of a previous one. As often as truth was unveiled, or by an invention accomplished, the inventor always stood on the foundation which

had been laid by the work of his predecessor upon the edifice of science.

It is frequently said: Chemistry is a modern science. This is an error, resulting in the change which Lavoisier caused in chemistry, and by which a new language of science was, and had to be, created. The object, herein clearly demonstrated, was to break with the past. Every object of science received another name, according to the changed intuition. It is thus, that the expressions of former periods soon became incomprehensible to later generations, which were familiar with the new language and things, and were called new, because they were called by a new name. The first beginning of chemistry belongs to the earliest dates. Thousands of years have assisted in gathering the rich material which had to be at hand to enable Lavoisier a century ago to put life and soul into it.

The necessity to unite chemical experiences has ever been felt, and at all times we meet with the exertion of searchers to acquire principles and to develop chemical theories out of facts. But all former experiments had to fall, when the celebrated naturalist and physicist George Ernest Stahl, who died at Halle, in the year 1734, came forward with his new chemical theory. This was based upon the burning of matter, and in it, Stahl has, with great sagacity perceived the very centre of all chemical discoveries. By this theory all matter which can be burned differs from other matter, because it contains what is called phlogiston, is consequently a combustible. When matter has been burnt, this phlogiston disappears. If metals, as zinc or lead, burn, they lose their lustre, change into powder; they become limey, as it was commonly called. Thus it will be perceived that phlogiston was the reason of all metallic lustre, which was lost when the metals had been burned. The remainder, the metallic lime, was the metal which had lost its phlogiston. Coal contains a great deal of phlogiston. Heat metallic lime with coal and the lustre will return, it will be regenerated,

Stahl's theory has been devised, and carried through with remarkable sagacity, it accomplished every thing that could be done with the methods of the period to which it belongs. It was in conformity with the appearances, and has therefore given entire satisfaction to science for nearly half a century, so much so, that the chemists of all countries defended it. Only after a long and hard struggle it could be defeated and replaced by a better theory.

Every truth does not suit every period. As long as the want of truth is not felt, an error might take its place. The man who first, and alone would not recognize Stahl's theory, and put an irrefutable fact in its place, was Lavoisier.

The scientific material at his command was not much larger than that which created Stahle's theory. Lavoisier himself had not added considerably to it by new discoveries of matter, but he surpassed at once all his predecessors and contemporaries, by the perception of the value of measure and weight in chemical experiments.

It was clear to him that measure and weight were of the highest importance in all questions regarding chemistry.

He it was who first introduced the *scale* in that science and made it the principal instrument in all chemical searches, for *its* tongue never speaks but truth.

With Lavoisier begins the era of chemistry, which may be characterized by calling it the quantitative, in antithesis to the predecessing qualitative, which in all researches only demanded the *how*, and never the *how much*.

Since the introduction and perfection of the quantitative method, chemistry has become a commentary to the proverb in the "book of wisdom," that says: "God has regulated everything by number, measure and weight."

Lavoisier's first chemical essay appeared in the year 1770. It treats of a very simple, but fully as important as simple a question: "Can water be changed into earth?" Geology shows in numerous instances the formation of hard stone out of water. Water hermetically kept in a glass vessel, called the "Pelican," continually heated, deposits earth. How does Lavoisier decide this question?

He weighs the pelican on an exact scale, fills it with water and weighs it again, to find the weight of this water. Thereupon he heats the hermetically closed pelican for 100 consecutive days. After this he finds that the weight of the apparatus with the water in it, is precisely the same as at the beginning of the experiment. But the water has been troubled and deposited earth, the same earth which forms the quartz used for the purpose of making glass. The emptied pelican is now weighed, and its weight found less than before the experiment, the inside of it has lost its brightness. The water containing the earth weighs more than at the commencement of the experiment, just so much more as the pelican has lost in weight. Lavoisier draws hereupon the conclusion, that water, cannot change into earth, and the apparent formation of earth simply results, that water, continually heated, attracts the glass and separates one ingredient whilst another is dissolved. Nothing more simple, but nothing more convincing than this argument. In this first, of his labors, Lavoisier already governs his new method completely. Such fruitful new method of searching, is to the inventor a new organ of perception.

Many careful investigations led Levoisier to the conviction that in nature nothing can originate from nothing, nothing in existence can perish. He justly perceived, that all chemical operation is only a change, which always keeps its weight, Any result obtained by chemical operation can never weigh more or less, as those matters which entered into the operation. If this equality of weight does not appear, the result of it can only be accounted for, that we have not been able to gather all that has been formed by the chemical experiment, or that we have not accounted for the co-operation of strange matter. Since the scale has decided either one or the other, it is necessary to prove by further trials: whence the loss, or whence the surplus comes from. Assured by those convictions, Lavoisier commenced his labors about the occurrences at the combustion of matte .

According to Stahl, all combustibles should contain a matter called phlogiston, which they lose, when burned. Lavoisier, however, finds that matter when burned, does not lose but gains in weight, and arrives at the conclusion, that by burning nothing escapes from it. From that date phlogiston does not exist any more for him.

If matter gains in weight by burning, reasons Lavoisier, it must receive some-

thing which causes this. What is it? In any space not containing air, nothing can burn. Condition to cause combustion is the presence of air. Consequently all matter receives something from air. If a certain quantity of zinc, hermetically closed, one-fifth of the volume of this air will disappear. The ashes of the zinc weighs more than the zinc used. But just as much as the zinc gained in weight by burning so much lighter is the air in which it was heated.

According to Lavoisier the combustible matter is chemically united with the acid matter in the air, which in most instances causes light and warmth. The same air which nourishes the fire, and changes sulphur, phosphor and coal by burning to acids, the same air nourishes animal life and changes by way of respiration the venous blood into arterial. His arguments forming the base of his doctrine, are so strong that it might have been expected they would have at once been unanimously acknowledged. But this was not the case. He never intended directly to dispute the doctrine of phlogiston. The aim of his labors was the establishment of a theory of his method on facts; of facts, which, by measure and weight, he endeavored irrefutably to prove. In 1772, he began his work; still, in 1783, eleven years afterwards, when his theory stood in greatest brightness before the world, he was alone among the chemists of that age, for the latter remained stubborn adherents of phlogiston.

Only one man, but a man worth a thousand, was of his opinion. His name is Laplace.

It was not before the year 1785, after the discovery that water was a compound body, and could be composed out of its ingredients, that the new doctrine carried the battlefield. In 1787, Fourcroy, then the most renowned teacher of chemistry, for the first time lectured upon Lavoisiers system, in comparison to the old system, and declared himself in his favor.

A question arises here: How could it happen that this great victory was only accomplished so late, that a truth so clear should not sooner find acknowledgment with its contemporaries? and we arrive at a result very apt to caution ourselves in overrating our intellectual capacities.

Let us examine the objections of the chemists of France, Germany, Scandinavia, etc., against the doctrine of Levoisier, and the arguments by which they endeavored to defend phlogiston, and we find them so shallow and weak, that they appear to us incomprehensible. The idea of the *existence* of phlogiston was, with its adherents a full compensation for argument, and made them incapable to comprehend Lavoisier's proofs for its *non-existence*.

Those distinguished men, progressing in the old track of science with remarkable results, were in want of sufficient understanding to follow the lofty flight of his ideas, The power of the scale would not enter their mind, and its arguments did therefore not exist for them.

We might be very apt to smile at such limitation of judgment, but we forget not, that change of intuition since that time had influence upon us and that modern instruction of exact science has been acquired by us almost unknown to ourselves. Very little of what we call our intellectual property, we have found ourselves, most of it we have learned. But few preferred intellects might have

discovered by their own thoughts the indication of the scale, had they not learned it.

Every era had such preferred intellects, but they were very seldom. It is interesting to know, that two hundred years before Lavoisier, a woman—indeed an uncommom woman—understood Lavoisier's principle better than his contemporaries: it was Queen Elizabeth ot England!

Sir Walter Raleigh imported the first tobacco to England, from Virginia, and was showing at court how it was to be used. In conversation upon the subject, the question arose, whether smoke had weight. Raleigh held that smoke was a body and had weight. This was doubted. He now offered a wager that he would tell the exact weight of smoke, taken from a certain quantity of tobacco. It was accepted. Raleigh sent for a scale, weighed the tobacco, filled his pipe and smoked it out. Then he weighed the remaining ashes which was less than the tobacco, and deducted this weight from that of the tobacco, declaring the difference to be the weight of the smoke. Ladies and gentlemen of the court could not comprehend it, but the Queen after some reflection decided by saying: "Sir Walter is right!"

Having developed the principle by which Lavoisier changed and laid the foundation of chemistry, I shall now present to the reader a short description of Lavoisier himself, and his great and multilateral efficiency.

Antoine Laurent Lavoisier was born at Paris, August the 16th, 1743, the only son of rich parents. In his early youth, already he progressed with great rapidity at college Mazarin, and his zeal and ardor for science was unsurpassed. His father gave him full liberty in the choice of his vocation. He studied mathematics, natural history, and chemistry, but not exclusively, for in the first term he preferred physics and geognosy.

The manner in which he went to work, when still a youth, demonstrates the energy of his character, and shows in a brilliant light that power of will, without which even genius is not able to accomplish anything extraordinary in science.

The Academy of Paris had offered a prize for the best method of street lighting, especially for the city of Paris. Lavoisier, 23 years of age, concluded to be one of the competitors.

The examination which he made for that purpose led him to the idea, carefully to observe the strength of the different flames, etc. In order to render his eyes very sensible for distinction, he locked himself in a dark room and remained in it without interruption for six long weeks. He had the satisfaction that the prize of 2000 francs was awarded to him, but he divided the money between three of his competitors to defray their expenses. He, on account of his generosity, was honored by the King with a golden medal. In 1768, 25 years of age, he was elected member of the academy, which never before had seen so young a member in its halls. From that moment his studies were almost exclusively chemistry, and, in connection with it, physics.

Wealth, which to so many is an obstacle in acquiring anything extraordinary in science, was to him but the means for scientific purposes. The pleasures and dissipation of society to which his family relations often called him, had no at

traction for him. He strove to become independent and to gain such a position as would enable him to defray the heavy expenses resulting from his experiments, regardless of cost. In 1771, when already occupied with the most difficult chemical problems, he applied for the office of farmer general of the realm, and obtained it.

At the same time he married the daughter of farmer general Paulze, and thus found himself in splendid circumstances.

Later, the parlor of his congenial wife became the centre of all intellectual life of Paris. She, after his death, published his works.

The double position as man of science and administrator of finance, was at that time exposed to many critical remarks. The learned could not pardon his position as farmer general. "What a pity," they would say, after he had communicated one of his discoveries to the academy, "that he is farmer general; he could do a great deal more!" Men of finance on the other hand, saw in him but an intruder, till they found, that he was not less remarkable as man of business than as man of science. In consequence, he soon gained their highest esteem, and his influence among them was very great.

Great corrections in the distribution of taxes were made by him, based upon exact statistic inquiry. An extract of Lavoisier's great work, concerning the results obtained, was printed at the expense of the State, and appeared 1791, with the title: "*Traite sur la Richesse Rerritoriale de la France.*" The abolition of an inhuman duty on the Jews of the cities of Lorraine, was his work. His position as farmer general offered many opportunities to apply his scientific knowledge to technical objects. In 1776, the government put him at the head of the powder and saltpeter manufacturies of the State. The manner in which saltpeter was at that time produced in France, was a great inconveniency to farmers. He changed and introduced a new method, saving expense to the farmer, and raising the production over five hundred per cent. France was now independent in this respect of England by whose mediation it had received East India saltpeter. The manufacture of gunpowder was so amended by Lavoisier that the carrying power of the French powder was greater than that of any other nation. After his death, England got the advantage.

All this was naturally only possible, because the chief of administration was likewise a man of science, and united in himself the observations of a business man, with those of a great chemist. He was elected to nearly all commissions, where scientific knowledge and practical capacities had to work hand in hand; as, for instance, in the celebrated commission for measure and weight, in which he took a leading part.

Lavoisier's practical activity was of such circumference, that it appears as if his time and his energy had gained in the same measure upon the work accumulated In 1787, he was elected to the provincial assembly of Orleans, and appointed 1788 administrator of discount.

During the time he was thus overcharged with business, he did not write less than forty essays for the Academy of Paris on his theory of chemistry; likewise his works about caloric and the respiration of man and animals.

One of the conditions of so extensive an activity was a fundamental principle of his character, love of order and practical distribution of time. In all he done the strictest order prevailed. The books regarding the expenses of his laboratory, were kept with the punctuality of a financier. We know therefore, from his books, that the expenses of his chemical labor amounted to 10,000 francs per year.

Morning and evening were devoted exclusively to chemistry, the middle of the day to business. Sunday to chemistry and the company of scientific friends. He received them in his laboratory. Here met the first men of learning, and scientific discussions took place, which were frequently decidedby by a remark from Lavoisier, who apparently did not take part in the conversation.

All this is sufficient make us admire Lavoisier, but we shall learn to love him to. Paris had at that time a system of draining offal, etc., which did not answer the purpose. Gas and miasma ascended from the stagnant contents of the canals below the streets, frequently killed the workmen occupied in cleaning them, sometimes by suffocation, and sometimes by the explosion of gas, as in coal mines.

Lavoisier, the farmer general and millionaire, now at the highest point of fame, to whom every hour was worth twenty, resolved to undertake one of the most disagreeable, and most dangerous labors ever chemist did. He descended to the horrible subterraneous Paris of that period, to visit the hearth of disasters, the contents of the canals, and dangerous gases which ensued, for the purpose of studying them. This work lasted several months, and as the examinations had to be made in the premises, Lavoisier had to pass much time in the canals himself.

This offering cannot be estimated too high, as it was made but for the purpose, and in hopes to better the condition of his fellowmen; to prolong their lives by destroying danger.

One of the brightest revolutions in the realm of science was accomplished by Lavoisier.

But clouds of revolution had by this time gathered on the fair sky of France, which put a terrible end to his blissful efficiency.

Lavoisier was aware of the danger to his position and his fortune, as the reign of terror began, but he did not know its entire greatness. Shortly before his death, he remarked to Lalande: "I shall lose all my property, but I shall work to make a living."

Conscious of what he had done for his country, and probably counting on his friends in the general assembly, he quietly worked at an edition of his works, when on the 2d of May, 1794, a member of the assembly general, formerly secretary with his father-in-law, accused the 28 farmers general, among which was the name of Lavoisier. Shortly afterwards, a report was made to the assembly general, and Fouquier Thinville, one of the blood hounds of the revolution, changed it into an accusation, before the revolutionary tribunal. Such accusations was equal to a death warrant.

Lavoisier was for a short time concealed by one of his friends in the secretary's office of the academy, but as he was informed, that all the other farmers

general, including his father-in-law, had been imprisoned, he left his hiding place and surrendered to share the fate of his official friends. On the 6th of May, the sentence was given, and on the 8th of May, 1794, the noble Lavoisier, guilliotined. With him, all the farmers general, and just before him, his father-in-law. Afraid to call Lavoisier by his name, the condemned were called by numbers. Lavoisier's was No. 5!

The death of Lavoisier is one of the darkest spots in the history of the French revolution, and has been depicted as such by Frenchmen themselves. But it is hardly possible to hold the common people, which knew, perhaps, little or nothing about Lavoisier, and the services he had rendered to them, responsible for the fatal deed—but more to those members of the academy, who had been his friends and colleagues, and never tried to defend him.

But two men endeavored to save him. One was Dr. Halle. As soon as he was informed of the arrest or Lavoisier, he wrote an article, in which he laid forcibly down the services he had rendered to his country. He read his report in the assembly, and had it printed; but all in vain.

The other was Mr. Loysel, well known in scientific circles, but without any better result. The reply to his appeal by the president of the tribunal was:

"We need no more men of learning!"

In a picture by the master hand of David, the features of Lavoisier are preserved to us. It represents him in the prime of life, full of vigor and manliness, and is the finest ornament of the academy of Paris.

Lavoisier's living monument is the chemistry of to-day, strongly developed by the course he gave it. Like himself, who in all scientific searches worked for real *life*, the welfare of mankind, so works that science, which is so much indebted to him.

ART. III.—MAN AS THE COTEMPORARY OF THE MAMMOTH AND THE REINDEER IN MIDDLE EUROPE.

Translated by C. A. Alexander, for the Smithsonian Institution, from "Aus der Natur: die neuesten Entdeckungen auf dem Gebiete der Naturwissenschaften" Leipzig, 1867.

While the eyes of inquirers were turned towards the east and followed with interest the excavations in Assyria and Egypt, in the hope of finding there something conclusive regarding the earliest condition of our race, similar researches in the drift deposits of France, Belgium, and England, in the silicious formations of those countries and in the oldest pile constructions of Switzerland, Germany, Hungary and Italy, brought to light incontestable proof that man had already obtained a firm foothold in different parts of Europe, at a time which ascends far beyond our chronology, and even lived cotemporaneously with the gigantic and partly extinct animals of the post-tertiary period; with the mammoth, the gigantic

deer, the wooley-haired rhinoceros, the bear, the tiger, and hyena of the caves.

It will be understood of itself, that these discoveries were at first received with distrust, because they totally subverted all previous conceptions and could by no means be reconciled to the received theories respecting the age of the human race. Even Christol and Tournal, who, in 1828, made, in the south of France, the first discovery of fossilized human remains, mixed with fragments of pottery and the bones of extinct species of animals, ventured not to vindicate for this significant fact its just value, so firmly fixed in public belief was the doctrine of Cuvier that man had first made his appearance on the earth after the era of those primitive species. In the same manner fared it with the discovery of the Belgian explorer, Schmerling, who, in 1833, found, in some caverns near Liege, human bones intermixed with rude implements of stone and the remains of extinct animals, such as the rhinoceros, the mammoth; even the discoverer himself suggesting that it was possible that these relics might have been floated thither after the denudation of their original places of deposit. It was of course, a striking circumstance that already a number of rude implements of stone had been found without the coincident occurrence of human remains; whence no particular significancy was attached to these when discovered, and many, without troubling themselves with further investigation were content to assign them to a later date or to confound them with what they were pleased to call *sports of nature*.

Nevertheless attention had become more strongly excited, and similar discoveries, especially since 1840, stimulated further inquiries. Communications to this effect did not, indeed at once receive a proper appreciation, but finally the grounds of proof became so preponderant that all objections of the skeptical were put to silence. Meanwhile the proofs have continued to accumulate, so that at length there remain no grounds of denying that man man was an inhabitant of the earth at the same time with the gigantic animals of the quaternary period. The discoveries of late years enable us even to follow the human race through different phases of improvement during the prehistoric era.

At the commencement of the quaternary period the aspect of Europe, as far even as the latitude of Sicily, closely resembled that of the polar regions of to-day. The entire continent was wrapped in a shroud of snow; enormous glaciers covered the whole of Iceland, Scotland, Scandinavia. All the valleys in the Carpathin mountains, the Balkin, the Pyrenees, and the Apennines, were filled to the summit with ice. From the peaks of the Alps, which lose themselves in dense clouds, descended enormous glaciers which, towards the south, stretched into the plains of Piedmont and Lombardy, as yet covered by the sea, while, towards the north, another glacier, 720 square miles in extent and 36 miles in length, reached to the Jura. The European continent, however, was, at that remote period, of much less extent than at present. The more depressed parts formed then the bed of the sea, and what was not covered with

water, lay hidden, during the long winter, under the enveloping snow.

In the wastes of ice towards the north pole men contrive to live, but we find no trace of them in Europe at the time we are speaking of. But centuries elapsed, the snow gradually decreased, the glaciers retreated by degrees, as did also the sea, and strange fauna occupied Europe: an elephant covered with crisped hair and having a long mane, a rhinoceros similarly protected, a hippopotamus which must have immigrated from the south through the mouths of the rivers, gigantic bears, a large kind of tiger, multitudes of hyenas of still existing species, a huge ox, &c. These animals subsisted together under a still rude, but less austere climate. At this time, also, man existed in Europe, in the midst of this not precisely idyllic fellowship!

Now, the question is this: In western Europe was man indigenous or had he migrated from Asia, together with the mammoth and rhinoceros? It would seem probable that, before entering Europe, he had inhabited Asia. During the great glacier period, the climate in southern Asia was less severe than in Europe, and therefore better fitted for the sustenance of man, whose dental system more nearly approaches that of the granivorous than that of the carnivorous tribes. It is, indeed, believed that, during the glacier period, Europe was divided from Asia, and that the two continents first became united after the retreat of the sea. At that time also, the first migration of mankind to the west must have taken place, induced by the desire of occupying the lands which had newly emerged from the waters.

In what light shall we picture to ourselves the condition of these men? The oldest implements of theirs which we possess, the traces of the hearths which served them to cook their food, certainly do not reach back to the earliest times of the existence of man upon the earth. However our pride may revolt at the fact, we are forced to acknowledge that man, as he stepped at first upon this part of the earth, bore, in his instincts, his passions and his wants, no small resemblance to the brutes. Fire was still unknown to him; his teeth show that he drew his nourishment from roots and other growths of the soil, and when he began to use flesh for food he must have devoured it raw. His unsettled life was exclusively devoted to satisfying his material wants; no idea had he of any exalted endowments; his speech would consist naturally of only a small number of words, in which, as in the case with the bushmen and other barbarous tribes the vowels played a prominent part. A skin, stripped from the beasts he had slain, formed the clothing of the primeval European; his limbs were exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, and when he would seek rest or protection from the cold or from wild animals, his necessary resort was to the forest or to dark cavities in the earth. Yet, in spite of the humble stage at which man stood in this early period or his mundane existence, he was still the paragon of creation, He was gifted with reason, and this invested him with supremacy over the beasts of the wilderness.

In time, by means of the lightning and volcano, man would become

acquainted with fire, and soon recognizing its beneficial activities would learn to preserve it as his greatest treasure. Since he knew not as yet how to produce it, he would carefully maintain it by day and night. Hence, in the earliest times, fire would naturally become the object of peculiar veneration. It must also have exerted a powerful influence on the conditions of human existence, To the roots and rather unsavory products of the earth, flesh would more generally succeed as a diet, the means having been supplied of rendering it tender and digestible. Against the rigors of winter, fire offered its ready and invaluable succor. The continual reassemblage around the same hearth contributed in no small degree to the formation of the family.

At this geological epoch the level of the water sank more and more, so that the submerged lands of Europe rose gradually above the sea. The glaciers melted in part, and that time the valleys began to exist. The part borne by the sea and by the water resulting from the melting glaciers in this first debacle, admits of no accurate determination. From this period proceed also the deposits of rounded pebbles which cover in great part different regions of Europe. Another phenomenon stands in close connection with these great currents of water: the caves were emptied of the clay which had filled them.

Amidst this grand melting of glaciers, and the floods thereby occasions, the volcanoes in Auvergne were emitting flames and lava. Their activity was witnessed by human beings found in the volcanic tufa of Mount Denise de Velais. At the same epoch, herds of the gigantic mammoth and rhinoceros roamed over middle Europe and central Asia. With them were to be seen also ruminants. Man had at once to defend himself against the savage animals and hunt them as the means of his subsistence.

The animals which existed cotemporaneously with the fossil man were, according to geological researches, the following: the mammoth, *Elephas primigenius*; Blumenb., the Siberian rhinoceros, *Rhinoceros tichorinus*, Cuv, the hyena of the caves, *hyæna spæla*, Gold., the tiger of the caves, *Felis spelæa*, Gold., the gigantic deer, *Meyaceros hybernicus*, the bear of the caves, *Ursus spelæa*, the reindeer, *Cervus tarandus*, Lin., the ure-ox and the aurochs, *Bos primigenius* and *Bison europæus*, together with many of the smaller carnivora, insectivora, rodentia, &c. These animals, now in great part extinct or confined, like the reindeer and bison, to certain narrow districts, lived, probably, thousands of years before the era of the more recent pile-structures, whose occupants have left behind them, in their utensils and implements, the race of an unfolding civilization, and had succeeded in domesticating some of the above species.

When we consider that the early men, with their miserably inadequate weapons, were called upon now to hunt such fierce and gigantic creatures as game, and now to contend with the more rapacious of them for their own lives and acquisitions, the remark of Lyell will not seem overstrained, that it is truly wonderful how the primitive man could maintain his existence in the presence of these formida-

ble adversaries. But it must be remembered, in explanation of the fact, that in the case of these remote ancestors of ours, as in that of the rude tribes of the present day, the instincts which guide even the beasts were developed to a high degree of energy and cunning, so that it would be practicable for them to provide for their necessities and ward off apprehended dangers. In this, the reflective understanding give even to the earliest of our race a superiority not to be undervalued, over the brutal force of the lower animals.

The power of endurance acquired by a life in the open air, partly in the recesses of the thick forests, partly in the caves, the bodily agility and dexterity in the use of their certainly very primitive weapons, supplied, especially in a combined onset something of the efficiency of our fire-arms; and the exhausted and incessantly harassed beasts would finally become the prey of the indefatigable huntsmen. For, that our earliest predecessors were huntsmen and fishermen, the scanty subsistence afforded by the flora of that age permits us not to doubt. Many animals would be captured by means of pitfalls, as is now the case in Africa and other regions. On the other hand, we see that the Esquimaux of to-day, seconded only by their faithful dogs, and armed merely with harpoons pointed with fish-bone, more rarely with iron, successful attack the formidble polar bear; and the Indian of the Rocky mountains shrinks not from an encounter with the fearful grizzly bear, and proudly wears its captured claws as a trophy around his neck. With no less impunity does the Hottentot engage in combat with the lion, the rhinoceros, &c.; for artifice and perseverance everywhere secure to man a superiority over the beasts of the desert and forest.

Before those whom we call savages had come into contact with the European, they bore as weapons, with the exception of the North Americans, who were already in possession of copper hatchets and knives, only the simple bow and arrow, the lance and javelin. The oldest inhabitants of Europe had similar weapons pointed with flint, stone hatchets, such as are now in use in Australia, poniards of bone and buck-horn, lances, clubs, etc ; and hence, weapons of such a kind as are now effectually managed by the wilder tribes of men. No doubt the aborigines of old had not less skill in the handling of their weapons than is now witnessed among the savages of Africa, America, and Australia; and thus is to be explained the possibility of resistance against the strongest animals, though, of course, the conflict of man with the latter must often have resulted disastrously to himself

The expertness of the uncivilized races in the used of their weapons is, if the reports of travellers may be believed, something truly wonderful. Thus, for example, the Indian of North America transfixes with his arrows, at surprising distances, a horse or even buffalo; and a like skill was displayed by those natives of Cape York, in Australia, who were brought to England is 1853. They were able, without taking deliberate aim, to strike with their javelins, at a distance of 20 paces and with invariable success, a small object fastened to a stick. Captain Gay relates that the Australians gener-

ally are secure of killing a bird at the same distance, and Starbridge informs us that the natives of Victoria dive, with spear in hand, into the river Murray, and never return without having transfixed a fish. Certain tribes of Patagonians live almost solely on fish which, in diving, they sometimes take with the hands, or capture from the shore by means of wooden spears, like the Indians of California. The dexterity of the South Sea islanders in the water is such that, descending among the coral reefs, they thrust the fore fingers into the eyes of any fish they have marked for prey, and thus bring it to land. The natives of Tierra del Fuego display singular skill in hurling stones, and not less the Hottentot in the use of his rakumstick, a missile with which he dispatches the feebler species of animals at a distance of from 30 to 50 yards. The address of the semi-barbarous Guachos of South America in the use of the lasso is well known; nor is the Patagonian less adroit with his bolas, by means of which he throttles the puma or American lion before dispatching him. The Esquimaux also avail themselves, for the capture of birds, of a throng contrived on the principle of the bolas; it is a thin strap of leather, loaded at the end with a bone-knob, as the bolas is with a stone-weight, to facilitate its being wound around the neck of the bird at which it is cast.

The boomerang of the Australians is an instrument for hurling, which was long ago in use by the ancient fowlers of Egypt. Many of the peculiarly formed stone implements of the oldest stone period may well be supposed to have served chiefly as missiles, just as similar ones, made of iron, are employed in Africa; for instance, the lissam or crooked club of negroes of central Africa, and the analogous bungamunga of the Tibboos, in the southeastern part of the Sahara. It cannot be doubted that the effectiveness of a skilfully thrown club or stone is little less than that of one of iron. It is therefore by no means necessary to assume that the aborigines of the earliest time must have wielded very heavy weapons, for it would appear, from what has been said, that those already found would have qualified their possessors to cope even with the colossal beasts of that remote era. Besides that the ponderous animals would be mostly captured by pitfalls, it has been seen that the American Indian pursues the buffalo of his hunting-grounds with proportionably feeble weapons, and that a single Esquimaux will enter into conflict with the polar bear when armed only with his lance Among the Tschutksches, who inhabit the northeastern angle of Siberia as far as the Arctic ocean and Behring,s straits, even boys of from 12 to 14 years attack the bears with spears five feet long, and succeed in killing them.

Opportunity is constantly afforded us of witnessing what can be performed by the ruder races of mankind with their simple implements. Stone knives of obsidian, for instance, are not uncommon in Mexico, and in certain cases they are preferred to those of iron. We are told by Greton that the Damaras dismember without difficlty the largest animals, elephants and giraffes, by means of the poorest instruments—thin pieces of iron fixed in a short handle—while he

himself could scarcely even pierce their hides with Europeans knives of the best quality. The Caffres show remarkable skill in striking an object with their peculiar missile at a distance of 20 or 30 paces. In doing this, they seize the assagay between the thumb and upper finger joint, the point in front, raise the hand to the level of the shoulder, not higher; draw the arm back and contrive, by striking the shaft against the wrist, to give it a vibratory motion from point to butt, hurl it with great force, and the weapon, still vibrating during its passage through the air, seldom fails of attaining its aim. To the same effect may be cited their knob-kerris, sticks of an inch in diameter and four feet long, terminating in a large round knob. These are usually cut from the off-shoots of the wild olive tree, and are employed by the Caffres in hunting wild beasts or destroying serpents. For this purpose they lay hold of the shaft of the weapon, measure with the eye the distance of the object, and throw the stick in such a manner that circling in the air, the thinner end shall strike the ground a few feet from the point aimed at, and the knob fall, in the rebound, directly on the victim. Equipped with such slight arms as these the Caffre seems insensible to danger, and war has shown that, in bush-fighting, the best English troops are scarcely a match to him.

We are, of course, not in a position to pronounce with certainty in what manner the primitive man hunted those animals of which we have been speaking. Had he been in possession of more formidable weapons than have been as yet recognized, it is hardly possible but that some of them would have been found. But that the animals in question existed as cotemporaries of man, and served him for sustenance, has been placed beyond a doubt, and, in his encounters with them, the primitive weapons of stone which have been already discovered will appear to have been no such mean auxiliaries, when we consider the effects produced by the analogous and simple instruments weilded by the uncivilized tribes of the present day.

This contest with the untamed animals gave the first impulse to industrial activity among men. Before all else, the preparation of weapons was to be thought of. Metals were then unknown, and men seized upon stone, especially that known as flint, whose aptitude for piercing or cutting was easily recognized. From this, hatchets and the points of lances were formed and fitted to wooden handles. The insufficiency of these weapons led to progressive adaptations. The beasts might fly, and must be overtaken by missiles; hence the javelin. The fugitive beasts are not in the way easily reached; a step in advance, therefore, was the bow, which sends the arrow to a greater distance. The idea of this was found in nature: man had before his eyes the curvature of branches of trees by parasitic vines, and witnessed the elastic force thereby developed. The cord of the first bows was supplied by strips cut with sharp stones from the hides of animals, and the arrow was equipped at one end with a point carefully wrought from flint. Stimulated by his necessities man would soon learn to resort to ambush and other stratagems, and gradually emboldened by success,

he would no longer fear to attack, even with his rude and imperfect weapons, the mightiest denizens of the wild—the mammoth, the rhinoceros, and the bear; nor was it seldom that these fearful enemies fell before his prowess or his craft.

The sedimentary deposits of this era contain numerous evidences of the industry of these first men, together with their own bones. The celebrated discoveries in the neighborhood of Abbeville, which we chiefly owe to the assiduous researches of Boucher de Perthes, have furnished so many contributions to our knowledge that we can now figure to ourselves an image of those far remote and obscure centuries during which mankind lived in caves of the earth, and merely added to the stock of their implements by the employment of the bones of wild animals in addition to the use of the flint.

The few very ancient skulls hitherto found authorize us to speak only with great reserve of the type of the races of men existing at that remote period. The skull discovered in a cavern of the Neanderthal, near Dusseldorf, exhibits an unusual thickness. The projection of the supra-orbital ridges is enormously great, the forehead narrow and very low. The development of the brain was slight, and similar to that of certain Australians. Carl Vogt is of opinion that this skull and that found by Schimerling in the cavern of Engis, near Liege, are remains of a race no longer existing in Europe. But scattered discoveries like these scarcely entitle us to such positive conclusions; it were well to await further revalations before resigning ourselves to any settled determination on this point. The size of the men of that distant date was greater but rather less than at present, notwithstanding the belief so generally prevalent that in prehistoric times our earth was inhabited by a race of giants. For the origin of this belief we must look to the large elliptical mounds which occur in certain districts, the so-called graves of the giants, in which are found in great numbers implements and weapons of stone, indicating that these graves belong to a far distant age and were receptacles for the dead bodies of a primitive people. These graves are sometimes more than a hundred feet long, so that, in conparison, our modern sepulchres are mere molehills. But it is an error, from the magnitude of the graves to infer that of the bodies deposited therein. As the dead, at the epoch in question, were buried, at least in part, without previous incineration, tolerably well preserved skeletons have been obtained from the tombs, and these skeletons evince that, so far from being the remains of giants, they are those of a race inferior in stature to the ordinary proportions of the Caucasian. The age to which these gigantic tombs are to be assigned cannot be exactly determined. Nor should we be justified in assuming that those who were deposited in them belonged to the earliest race of men who inhabited Europe after the disappearance of the icy investiture which, in the judgment of the most recent and judicious inquiries, wrapped that continent almost from side to side at the beginning of the present geological era; for the implements of stone so commonly found in the tombs bear witness to a considerable degree of skill, while the tombs

themselves show that the builders had made no contemptible progress in that branch of mechanics which is occupied with the management of heavy masses.

The strong projection of the superciliary ridge may possibly be a consequence of the manner of life led by these cave-dwellers. They must need be always on the look out against the beasts of which they were in fear, or searching anxiously for such as it was their business to capture for food. By this incessant effort of visual attention, the muscles of the part in question would become disproportionately developed, and the physiognomy be impressed with a peculiarly wild and fierce aspect.

Were the men of that distant time cannibals? The question scarcely admits of being positively answered. In Scotland, different skulls have been found, of which some bear a resemblance to those of the ancient Britons, others to those of the Australians. Together with these have been discovered bones of children which, according to Owen, bear upon them the traces of human teeth. Intermingled with these remains, arrow-heads of flint occur, and pottery of a very rude description. Spring, who carefully examined the bones of the children which were found in Belgium, in the grotto of Chauveau, also arrived at the conclusion that they were the remains of a repast made by cannibals. The proof offered by these facts, however, is not of a convincing kind; on the contrary, it has been met by strong objections. If men in the quaternary period devoured their fellow-creatures, it is difficult to suppose that the marrow of the bones would not be a delicacy as eagerly sought as was that of the beasts slain in the chase. But no human bones are found which have been opened in such a way as to extract this much-coveted substance, while everywhere occur in abundance the bones of mammalian animals which have been evidently fractured for that purpose.

A question has been suggested by Horn whether the marrow of the longer bones of animals served the primeval men simply and solely as nourishment? It may have been used also for anointing the body, as well for protection against noxious insects as against cold. Nor is it unlikely that one of its economical uses may have been for rendering more pliant the skins which served for clothing. As an article of food the marrow must have been devoured raw, for most of the bones show that they have undergone no action from fire. Indeed, during the earliest stage of man's existence in Europe, fire would seem to have been unknown for any such purpose, as were also vessels artificially made of earth; and if the marrow was to be melted for the processess just mentioned, it could only be effected by the heat of the sun and in cavities of the rocks.

It has been remarked that in the bones of the human jaw which have come down to us from the still more recent age of stone, the incisor teeth are greatly worn. Hence it has been hastily inferred that flesh was then eaten uncooked; but this view is in conflict with the discovery of charcoal under circumstances which imply the former existence of a hearth; nor is it to be supposed that, after having

learned the economical uses of fire, men would continue to devour their food raw. The abrasion of the incisors might perhaps proceed from a peculiar mode of mastication. At this day the Esquimaux are said to use the front rather than the molar teeth in manducating food.

The caverns in which at that remote era the bear, the tiger, and the hyena found a lair, are easily distinguishable from those selected by man as a habitation. In the former, the bones which occur are unbroken; they bear merely the traces of having been gnawed by carnivorous beasts. In the haunts of the human being, on the contrary, the bones are always broken in the direction of their length, for the purpose of extracting the marrow. Our primitive ancestors devoured indiscriminately the horse, the ox, the bear, the tiger, and even the rhinoceros, provided the chase was successful. If the mammoth fell into their hands, the thick integument of the animal must indeed have been a prize for their rude dormitories.

(to be continued.)

ART. IV.—THE RAMIE PLANT.

[From the Norfolk Day Book.]

In consequence of the great interest which we are glad to see our country planters and city merchants are taking in this new staple, we have taken much pains to procure reliable information about the ramie, its cultivation etc. We condense from a circular obtained from a gentleman who has for three years cultivated it profitably, and hopes our account will induce our farmers at least to experiment with it. The ramie belongs to the nettle family, and in appearance resembles a luxuriant growth of that noxious week. The leaves, however, being shorter and broader.

At first planting, standing single it is inclined to make many side shoots or laterals. After being cut down once or twice about an inch under the ground the roots become stronger, a large number of ratoons will sprout from them and few or no side shoots show themselves. The shoots from the roots or ratoons stand close and push each other up.

These close standing shoots contain the best fibre; they are hollow, almost as much as a cane. As soon as the fibre has the proper strength, the stem begins to color a little darker near the ground—when the stems have reached a height of a little more than four feet, the fibre will be of good quality, but does not get hurt if left uncut until it reaches ten feet in height.

The following is a good method to commence planting in the garden or nursery. The soil has to be worked twelve to fourteen inches deep, pulverised and cleared of all weedy roots; the plants are planted in from three to four inches deep furrows, so that when they are afterwards hilled the ground becomes nearly level. As

soon as the plant is six to eight inches high, the top ought to be nipped off, in this way side shoots will start from every leaf. When they have reached four or five inches in length, the plant ought to be covered with earth and nothing but the tops of the side shoots left to be seen. All these side shoots will soon make roots, when they can be cut off from the mother plant and transplanted. The mother plant has now strong roots and will soon have ratoons which have to be treated like the side shoots mentioned above—and when strong enough and rooted, can be transplanted. The bed should be kept clear of weeds and the ground loose around the plants. A rich, rather sandy soil, is believed to be best for the nursery.

FIELD CULTURE.

The land should be deeply cultivated, subsoiled—fourteen inches is not too deep. The field ought to be laid off in pieces for about twenty rows in width, and a passage left for a wagon to pass; in this way the plants will not be hurt by the wheels in gathering. The rows ought to be four feet apart and the plants in the rows two feet apart. After the land is plowed, cleaned and harrowed, a furrow is made every four feet, and in these furrows the plants are placed.

Rooted plants as well as layers ought to be covered with earth nearly to the tops, and if the shoots are too long on rooted plants, cut back two or three leaves. Roots ought to be covered with earth two or three inches deep.

As soon as the plants have reached seven to eight inches they ought to be topped, to force the plants to form side shoots. When these latter are grown to about five or six inches in length, the plant has a kind of bushy appearance; then the plant is hilled nearly to the top, and at the same time all weeds destroyed. The plant is left to grow now until it has reached the height of about three feet, when it is cut down an inch below the ground. The fibre of this growth can be used, but is not perfect yet, because the roots and bulbs are not yet large enough, and there are as yet too many side shoots.

After the second year there is but little trouble, one plowing between the rows early in the spring, and spreading manure over the fields during the winter.

The planting in the field ought to be done in the spring, but can be continued late in August. Those planted late, to be covered in winter with straw or leaves to enable the young plant to resist the frost. Those planted early in spring or summer, will not require this protection, as they will make roots eighteen to twenty-four inches deep.

All refuse matter falling off in cleaning should be fed or dried and put in barn for winter use. All the manure coming from the plant ought to be carefully gathered up and brought back on the field will give a rich return for many years without being replanted.

The ramie is useful in two ways. It contains first a silk-like fibre of uncommon strength and fineness, and second, the refuse matter furnishes excellent food for stock—milch cows fed with it give more milk than if fed with clover. Fences must be kept in good order as cows and hogs after once tasting it will break down a poor fence. Perhaps the most important point, is its easy and almost certain cultivation, because the first year its cultivation does not give more work than sweet potatoes, and afterwards the main and almost only labor consists in harvesting

The quantity of fibre will be more than cotton, and the price per pound more than double.

ART. V.—SOUTHERN ADVANTAGES

[From the Galveston News.]

Hon. Judge Kelley, member of Congress from Pennsylvania, told the men of the West, in a speech some time ago, that the South would not stop raising cotton, but would grow with it all manner of provisions—corn, hay, beef, pork. He predicted that she would raise more cotton than ever, but that every man would put part of his farm in cotton and part in wheat, rye, barley, corn and sweet potatoes, and would raise his own pork. "Gentlemen of Illinois," he said, "the South can give you five to one and beat you at raising pork."

The South has three seasons; wheat matures in the spring; corn at midsummer; and cotton is a fall crop. Add to this the vast amounts of fruit and vegetables of nearly all kinds that may be raised, and it will at once be seen that the South will be the land of plenty, and specially inviting to the emigrant on that account.

Western papers agree with Judge Kelley, and speak of the new order of things in the South as certainly the best for us, whatever it may be for the region that used to sell us our provisions. They say the South can raise all it needs, in the way of provisions, and much to spare, with ease. "Its soil is more fertile and its climate more genial than ours. The yield is more per acre, and the cost of getting it to an Eastern market or to Europe is less than us." So says the Burlington Hawkeye. The Philadelphia Press declares that "the South for the future commands the grain market of the New World."

The chief portion of the lands of the Northwest now open to immigrants is more than a thousand miles from seaboard market, nearly all devoid of timber, and the ground is frozen for five months of the year. Rivers, canals, and railroad freeze up; but a single crop can be raised on the same ground in the year; cattle and stock of all kinds must be fed and housed for months at heavy expense; costly houses and clothing and a large amount of fuel are required. In the South none of these difficulties exist, and all their opposite advantages are enjoyed. The farmer here had a better chance than

anywhere else in the country. Henry Carey, the great economist says: "At the South nature has provided for the removal of all existing difficulties, having placed the farmer there in such a position that not only is he nearer to the markets of the world, but that he may convert his wheat and his sweet potatoes into cotton, into pork, oranges or any other of numerous fruits, for all of which he finds an outlet in the various markets of the world." Seeing these things, and seeing further that the whole upland country of the South presents one of the most magnificent climates in the world, can it be doubted, he asks, that the day is at hand when emigration to the Southwest "must take the place now occupied by emigration to the West, and when power is to pass from the poorer soil of the Northeast to those richer soils which now offer themselves in such vast abundance in the center, the South and the Southwest? As I think, it cannot."

It is a hard matter to turn the tide of immigration, but it is beginning to change, and soon, we believe, it will set with a stronger current than is generally expected into our own State and all parts of the South.

ART. VI.—TAXATION IN OHIO.

The "Grand Tax Duplicate" of Ohio has just been issued from the State capitol. It thus appears that the total valuation of taxable property of that State is $1,143,461,386, on which the entire tax levies for State, county, school and local purposes, amount to $20,489,148. The rate of State taxation is the same as for the present year—three and a half mills per dollar; 1.2 mills for interest and redemption of debt; 1 mill for support of State government; 1.3 mills for school purposes, and the following are the aggregate items of valuation:

Land valuation	$500,840,909
Real estate in cities, towns and villages	182,611,488
Chattel property	460,008,899
Total	1,143,461,386

If now we add the tax levies for county and other purposes, the general statement will appear as follows:

For State purposes.		Total taxes.
Interest and Sinking Fund		$1,370 101 12
Support of government		1,141,753 93
Support of schools		1,485,617 45
Total for State purposes		$3,997,472 50
County purposes	$5,666,075 95	
Township purposes	6,318,460 31	
City and village purposes	4,507,139 38	
		$16,491 675 64
Total tax levies		$20,489,148 14
Tax levy of 186[illegible]		20,253,615 23
Increase		235,532,91

The increase is the result of State expenditures; there having been an actually falling off of county taxes of $367,562 60. The four counties of Cuyahoga, Hamilton, Franklin and Montgomery embrace above one-third of the entire cultivation of the State, as is shown by the following table:

	Valuation.	County Taxes.
Cuyahoga	$ 51,363,440	$1,109,089 00
Hamilton	166,945,497	3,658,150 89
Franklin	34,510,755	444,563 74
Montgomery	34,920 1?0	563,864 73

Four of the principal cities of the State are situated in these counties. Cleveland, in Cuyahoga; Cincinnati, in Hamilton; Columbus, in Franklin; and Dayton, in Montgomery. It would seem as though no overgrown, "Ring" had been established in the cities of Ohio, as the act of swelling city tax-levies has not been acquired. The following table exhibits the valuation and taxation for municipal purposes in the five largest cities of the State:

	Valuation.	City Tax.
Cincinnati	$131,383,519	$3,678,738 81
Cleveland	35,121,410	1,059,113 30
Columbus	15,460,589	330,856 59
Dayton	13,970,110	377,694 76
Toledo	9,812,6?0	525,032 17

The State of New York has population about fifty per cent greater than Ohio, a taxable valuation exceeding $1,700,000,000, and about double the rate of taxation—the total amount of State Canal and school tax exceeding twelve millions. The aggregate taxation of this city exceeds twenty-four millions, and the sixteen other cities are in due proportion. In fact, the taxes for the city of New York, for municipal, county, school and police purposes, would carry on the entire State, local and school politics of Ohio, while the taxes of Brooklyn will pay all the expenses incurred in the cities and incorporated towns of that State.

ART. VII.—MARDI-GRAS.

This institution, almost peculiar in this country, to the city of New Orleans, very well justifies the publication which we make of a very minute and well written description taken from the New Orleans Crescent of the 9th of February. It is not only very interesting in itself, but it will tend to show the rest of the United States, how impossible it is to overthrow the social customs, or the social enjoyments of a people by absurd and pertinacious political persecution. We do not doubt but there are many sympathizing friends who pity our people for being compelled to endure the society

of negroes. There are many miscreants who are rejoiced to think that the standard of social character in the South has been degraded by compulsory association with those whom it detests. We give the Mardi-Gras description with the assurance of personal observation, that there was not a negro, nor a scallawag present, at this assemblage of the elite of domestic and foreign society in the city. There were numbers of Northern people, gentlemen and ladies There were numerous Federal officers. There was no distinction whatever of section, or of past opinion, but the line was scrupulously drawn against those who came South to plunder, to slander, or to incite the colored people against the whites We may remark that the celebration of *Mardi-Gras*—the carnival of Spain and Italy, has come into such favor with the Americans that they rather surpass the French in the extravagance and zeal with which they enter into its amusements. The Krewe of Comus—the idea of which is taken from Milton's beautiful mask of Comus—was instituted by Americans. It is a most expensive and wholly gratuitous entertainment to which all the most prominent and estimable ladies and gentlemen, citizens, and visitors of the city are invited. It is conducted with the utmost propriety, and tends to the improvement of the public taste, by the refined and beautiful selection, and illustration of its subjects. It may be said that the spectacle of two thousand of the most beautiful and best dressed ladies, presenting that indefinite variety of costumes and dress colors, which the custom of New Orleans permits, was a scene that surpassed any tableau whatever. There were flashing eyes and diamonds, rosy cheeks and ribbons. There was the glowing type of the Creole brunette, and the cameo-cut profile of the Saxon blonde. All constituted a combination of attraction which can be seen together no where else except in New Orleans. We regret to omit the Crescents description of the ladies and of their dresses. We regret it because our statement of the absence of all sectionalism would be thereby verified. Besides the ladies of New Orleans, there were fair representatives from St. Louis, Nashville, Mobile, Louisville, from the North, from New York, and many from foreign countries:

MARDI-GRAS.

[From the New Orleans Crescent.]

Yesterday was a great day for the votaries of Shrove Tuesday.

The day was as warm and sunny as an April day, and the people were all upon the streets. We can't say the turn out of masks was as numerous or as gorgeous and laugh-provoking as last year, or in years proceeding, but still it was very fine, and the throngs of people on the streets returned to their homes far from disappointed.

If the full grown mummers were few, those of a tender age were exceedingly numerous. The principal streets were thronged with little girls, whose fair features were bedizened with outlandish masks; but the golden and flowing locks Dame Nature had endowed them with burst forth from all constraint, and would not be concealed. As to the boys, they were still more numerous, but they be hanged! The many twinkling feet, graceful and beautiful, that glanced along the pavements yesterday, from noon to dewy eve, a summer's day, were too bewilding for a lover of the beautiful to look elsewhere.

But there was an ape that deserves more than a passing notice. That ape had herculean proportions joined with the agility of the species which he represented. He must be one of the clowns or harlequins at the Academy. He climbed the iron pillars of the Crescent Billiard Hall; he leaped upon a wagon containing eleven bales of cotton, and squatted suddenly and unexpectedly upon the broad shoulder of the negro driver, and when that fear-stricken darkey jumped in his fright to terra firma, he seized the reins and drove the four mule team two squares before leaving the van. He sprung into a light wagon in which there was an upright empty flour barrel, ensconced him in that, and concealed himself entirely within it. At the corner of Canal street, the ape espied a lot of girls in mask, sprang from the car and started in chase of them. They screamed and ran with all their might. Their masks inpeding their breathing, they tore off the masks, and lo! they were all darkies, darker than the—lieutenant governor of Louisiana. As to the other maskers we saw none worthy of special notice. There was the conventional Yankee, the nigger legislator, the carpet bagger, the Grecian bend and all the monstrosities peculiar to this unfortunate generation —but that was all. A friend of the writer, a sober-sided, quiet, but most observant man, remarked that the reason why there was not so great a celebration of Mardi Gras yesterday, is that every day now is Mardi Gras. "See that girl, for instance," he said, pointing to a young lady in skyblue satin, from head to foot, her skirts reaching only half way down the calf, and her Grecian bend protruding like a phenominal elephantiasis from her rear; her body bent forward at an untold angle, and a huge pile of foreign hair upon her head similar to the "chips" of a buffalo on the Western prairie—"if that isn't equal to any Mardi-Gras, I'll lose my head—and the best of it is you will find scores just such maskeraders, powdered and perfumed and painted, every day on Canal street." Our friend was right, and he might have added something about tight pantaloons, monkey jackets, Grant hats, hair parted in the middle, etc., etc, etc.

THE MISTICK KREWE.

The reporter of the Crescent went on a wildgoose chase all day

yesterday, in order to learn the starting place and the route of the Mistick Krewe. Some told him they were to start from the Jackson railroad depot; some from the St. Louis Hotel; others from the St. Charles, and others again from the Pickwick Club on Canal street, corner of Exchange Ally. Ye reporter thought the last named the safest and surest. After looking all day long at the varied maskers that marshalled their throngs along the the streets of the city, and doing naught else; and after partaking of a particularly good dinner with two ante-bellum friends he set himself to work in dead earnest. He installed himself, about half-past six o'clock at the pedestal of one of the columns of the Bank of America, Solus at que rotundus, determined to await the approach of the Krewe, even if they approached like the rugged Russian bear, the armed rhinoceros or the Hyrcan tiger. He waited and—along came a covey of good Samaritans who invited him to the Gem. The gongs and the hew gags were not audible, and he thought that, consistently with duty, he could charge the bank watchman to keep his seat until his return. He found the seat occupied, on his return by an individual bearded like the pard, and judged from one glance of his eye that he was sudden and quick in quarrel—also that he was of Gallic origin, and would make reprisals in the morning. He therefore left Whiskerado to the quiet enjoyment of the seat, and stood on the edge of the curb, midway between the bank and the cornor of Royal street. He waited and waited. To and fro went the crowd—but there are few maskers. One young gentleman, with two young ladies clothed in purple and fine linen, and with their dainty feet and ankles covered with the whitest stockings and the finest little boots —he rushed—they trippcd—from Royal to Exchange and from Exchange to Royal, six times between twenty minutes after 7 and half-past that hour. What became of that party, deponent knoweth not. Carriages and cabs, omnibuses and furniture vans had their living freight, principally women and children, all breathless, to see the Mistick Krewe. Nobody knew which way or by what street the Mystick Krewe were to make their appearance. Such running to and fro, such uncertainty, amounting almost to a panic, we never saw outside of a surprised army or a threatened town. The blast of an oyster horn towards the levee or the bray of a car mule would start the entire crowd to swaying, and like an immense flock of sheep, where one went, thither went all the others.

Finally about 8 o'clock, looking away down Canal street, a glare lighted up the sky above and shone upon the neighboring buildings. It was the Mistick Krewe. It is, it is the Comus Krewe, was whispered on every side. Then came a tremendous pressure around the statue, whilst old broze Henry Clay looked down complacently upon the surging multitude, whilst they crowded and quarreled, uttered curses not loud but deep against each other. The reporter aforesaid is full six feet in statue, but he had to stand a tiptoe to witness the gorgeous pageantry of Comus over the mass of people that were in front of him. What he saw he is unequal to describe, but as it is his office to attempt a description, here goes:

First came an ambitious horseman, a dark visaged bewhiskered son of Spain or Sicily, (mind ye, he was no son of Comus,) and after him came half a dozen cabs, barouches and carriges. They turned incontinent down Royal street, and such a scattering to head the procession on Bienville, Conti and St. Louis was hardly ever witnessed outside of Stonewall Jackson's corps in the the valley of Virginia. The Crescent reporter was one of the fools who went with the crowd. But the huge lighted obelisk in the van of the procession, and what followed, proved how false were the prognostics of the general. The Krewe passed up by the statue, by the Pickwick Club—and there it was that a small mouse was smelt by the knowing ones assembled; the kisses, wafted by the Misticks in sheep's clothing, to the gentlemen on the Pickwickian gallery, showed—what? "Ask not to know!"

The Krewe proceeded on their way up Camp street to Julia, down the latter street to St. Charles, and down St. Charles to the City Hall, where they made a

CALL UPON THE MAYOR.

As time honored a ceremony as the parade of the Krewe itself is the call made upon the mayor by its esteemed head King Comus. People knew this and as a consequence, flocked to the neighberhood of the City Hall. By half-past seven o'clock the steps, colonade and windows were all crowded, while on the railings and in the trees of Lafayette square expectant observers were numerously perched. New Orleans is famous for the crowds she can gather at short notice, but never did she send forth a denser mass of populace than that which waited to see King Comus enter to pay his salute to the chief municipal officers.

And when, around the corner of the Moresque Building, flashed the lights and glittered the pageantry of the procession passing up Camp street toward Julia, the crowd was all alive with anticipation, and on its outskirts ebbed and surged in that direction. A few minutes more and the head of the column turned into St. Charles. Then all was expectancy. "There they come! there they come!" shouted the juveniles, croaked the old women, whispered the pretty girls, and sure enough there they did come. Those who had the privilege hurried into the mayor's parlor, the better to observe the coming interview. A squad of policemen kept open on the steps a passage way for his majesty. Inside the mayor's office, books and records had been for the nonce laid aside, and lo—in their place were festive bowls of punch and iced cakes, rich and attempting. In waiting to receive the illustrious potentate to whom we all of us, on the principle of laugh and grow fat, doubtless owe whatever corpulency we may possess, gathered a good number of the city fathers and the mayor with his secretaries, Messrs. Overall and Bower. Quite a number of ladies and children were also present. When lo—in the doorway appeared a demoniac figure, with grotesque features, jaw wide oped, protruding tongue, caudal appendage coiled

upon his back, a crown of huge spikes radiating from his cranium. This was the first arrival. After him came more, three or four, of the same ilk, all ferocious looking fellows, yet good-natured as could be; and last of all Comus came also, a great, strapping fellow ten feet high, of rubicund visage, shadowed by locks of coarse hair falling far below his portly waist. He bowed; they all bowed. Spoke then the first visitor, he of the protruding tongue and coiled caudal. Said he, "Mr. Mayor, we have called to pay you the respects of King Comus, in accordance with the annual custom." The mayor expressed his satisfaction at so high an honor. "We regret," continued the spokesman, "that our costumes prevent a visit by a larger delegation, but hope at some future time to call upon you more numerously." The mayor was pleased to see them all—tendered them the hospitalities of the city, and hoped to be the recipient of their own at the Opera House that same evening Then the distinguished guests withdrew, the procession resumed its march, and the vast crowd dispersed in a twinkling in all directions.

THE OPERA HOUSE.

Long before 8 o'clock, the hour at which it was announced that the doors of the Opera House would be opened, the crowd who had collected around there was so great as utterly to preclude the idea that any one, however hardy and however ready to throw looks of protestation and words of expostulation, could approach the magic portals. Ladies were there—refined and delicate ladies—who were pushed, smashed, shoved and had their dresses torn—more, "mussed," but who heroically through it all held on to the places they had won, refusing to yield to the pressure of the surging crowd, who every moment grew larger, holding all their waiting and all their trouble cheap if they could only obtain that for which their soul longed—a good seat. Those of our readers who have ever been at one of the similar crowds which for years gathered every Mardi-Gras evening around the doors of the Varieties can imagine the scene in front of the Opera House. If possible, it was a little worse, for the larger capacity of the Opera House had induced the issue of a greater number of tickets than usual, so the crowd was a more numerous one, every element of confusion and push in it being thus multiplied. But at last the moment came, the doors were opened, and with a rush such as the damned might make, were the gates of Paradise thrown suddenly open to them, (excuse us, ladies, this rather uncomplimentary comparison, but really it is the only similitude which is applicable), the crowd surged into the theater, and hurrying pell mell up stairs the fortunate and much enduring ones at last obtained those positions for which they had struggled so manfully.

Then commenced the influx of a steady stream As each party came up the stairs, it was divided by the ruthless decree of the Krewe, the ladies seeking seats in the first and second tiers, the gentlemen being allowed a choice between the galleries and the

space immediately around the boxes. There was no cessation in the arrivals until the Krewe, having finished their procession, entered the Opera House, when, as the doors were closed, those coming afterwards could only knock, and bewail their own lack of punctuality.

As to the scene within the Opera House just before the curtain rose, what shall we say of it? The dress circle and second tier were filled with ladies, not a black spot in the shape of a masculine being visible to mar the splendor of the picture. Dresses, many colored, faces, many-phased in their beauty, gaslights repeated everywhere by the jewels numberless, a sea of fans moving, not in the breeze, but to make a breeze, formed a sight alone in its peculiar gorgeousness, and never to be seen but at the entertainments of the Mistick Krewe of Comus.

Before we go further, though, we should notice some of the arrangements of the house which were well calculated for the comfort and convenience of the Krewe's guests. The former method of descending from the premieres had been done away with and the orchestra instead of being concealed as formerly, were, together with the parquette, open for the accommodation of several hundred persons, who otherwise might have been deprived of even a standing position. Additional chairs were also placed in the alleys between all the boxes. The ball room was reached through the couloirs of the parquette by a pair of stairs on either side.

Every face was lighted with anticipation, and every eye was constantly turned to the stage, as though fearing the curtain should suddenly rise without the observers noting the fact. But why dwell upon the audience? We have told of them as well as we could, pages could give no fuller idea, for it would take volumes to enumerate each beauty of each lady, which made the beauty of the whole, and that would be the only manner in which we could better describe the scene. Turn we, therefore, now to the tableaux, to behold which so many of the fairest of the New Orleans fair had assembled—the tableaux which have been so eagerly looked forward to, and from which so much enjoyment had been expected.

THE TABLEAUX.

At last, while the hearts of the fair almost stood still with expectation, the great and consummate hour having at last arrived, the heavy curtain slowly rose and revealed, grouped upon the immense stage, the figures comprising the

PRELUDE.

This was an immense human face, the five organs, eyes, ears, mouth, nose and hands being so arranged as to compose a man's countenance. This however, was but an indication of what was to come—which was also expressed in these lines, which were upon the programme:

" * * * * though things sensible be numberless,
" And only five the Senses' organs be;
" Yet in those five all things their forms express,
" Which we can Taste, Feel, Smell or Hear and See."

FIRST TABLEAU.

This represented typically the Sense of Sight and its Objects, the great receiver of the sensation and the things which create the sensation.

On a raised platform in the center of the stage and to the rear, above the others and forming the central figure was Phœbus, god of the morning, deity of light, to whom the ancients gave divided reverence while Aurora's glories were faded in the fires of the mid-day sun, when he claimed sole worship. He was standing in a triumphal chariot drawn by the four winged horses of the Sun, whose glaring eyeballs and manes dripping light, might well fit them to represent the steeds who cured the audacity of Phæton, the rash. Immediately to the front of the stage, and in the center, were two immense Eyes, a male and female, which, as Phœbus had represented the poetry of vision, impersonated the material means of it. Between Phœbus and the eyes stood three maidens, arms locked in arms, representing severally the Emerald, the Topaz and the Ruby, each bearing some distinctive mark on her dress to indicate the jewel; near them on one side was was Sapphire, a warrior with glittering sword, and on the other Diamond, an eastern king, whose garments and crown and jewels glittered with the radiance of a veritable Koh-i-noor. Near him to the right was Rainbow, Iris, the fair goddess, who brought down with her from heaven that for which she claimed honor to be paid; to the left of Sapphire stood Chandelier, lighting his part of the stage. In the front of the stage, to the right of the two Eyes, were Jason, he of the golden fleece, who represented the most precious of metals, and clasping around the waist, Pearl; to the left of the Eyes were silver, bearing as his crest on his stomach—a curious place—a specie half dollar, the sight of which alone was worth the trip to the Opera House—and by his side Pride, decked in peacock feathers, as she ever seeks to be seen. Two figures to the extreme right and left of the stage represented respectively a Clock and Optical instruments. Add to these four butterflies impersonating Europe, Asia, Africa and America, which hovered around the car of Phœbus, and the list of figures in the tableau is complete. As to the taste and consummate art displayed in their grouping, that we can only praise, we cannot reproduce it upon paper.

THE SECOND TABLEAU

Was the sense of Hearing and its ministers. Over this, on a raised dais, as in the first tableau, presided Orpheus, the man-god, "whose heart-strings were a lute," whose voice charmed all earthly creatures, and even lulled into pity the fierce passions of Hades' king, when

he besought for the release of Eurydice, his beloved, but whose tender heart, brooking no delay, lost the light of his life by haste to feast his eyes upon her face. He had his lyre in his hand, while near him crouched a mighty Lion, the king of the beasts, who, subdued by his wondrous strains, became submissive to his will, and followed his beck and call as a very dog. To the right and left of the stage were two immense Ears, the material representatives of the sense. Grouped about were the Cricket, sweet symbol of the music of domestic affection, which fills so many hearts and homes with melody, less in degree than the strains of adoring love with which Heaven's court is filled. Musical instruments of various kinds, the Drum, the Fife, the Horn, the Clarionet. There was also King David, the sweet singer of Israel, who, as Orpheus, represented love, devotional and adoring. There, too, were cow bells (this, it is to be supposed, is in compliment to the Cowbellions, of Mobile), Scotia's bagpipes, Chinese bells rung by a veritable Chinese juggler, Spain's guitar, emblems of romance and suggestive of "music, moonlight, love and flowers." Nor was there lacking a representative from the humbler walks of the divine art, for a genuine monkey was there with the traditional hand organ. Directly in front of the figure of Orpheus was a mighty bell, whose handle was four-headed, even as the church bell has a fourfold office to fulfil—the joyous baptism anthem, the merry wedding peals, the wild, fierce alarm of fire, and the solemn, sombre funereal toll.

THE THIRD TABLEAU

Was dedicated to the setting forth typically the pleasures of Smell. The central figure was of course Flora, goddess of flowers, to whom we owe almost all that are agreeable of our perfumes. She occupied the same elevated position that had been assigned to her mythological predecessors, and from her cap, which was full of earth's most beautiful productions, she showered down upon the heads of her subjects handfuls of God's earthly jewels. Around her were grouped representatives of the flower kingdom, seeming together a very flower garden got up to order to fit the stage of the Opera House. There were Tulip, Honeysuckle, Dahlia, Fuschia, the staring sunflower, and the less pretending Morning Glory, Rose the Queen, and Violet worthy to share her throne; Poppy, the sleep producer, and Heartsease, the dear to lovers. In the front center was a gigantic Nose—great heavens! what a nose that was! It was such a nose as we have read about in fairy tales when Prince Nosey, the immortal, lived and flourished, but such a nose as will never more exist, unless the Mistick Krewe set to work to create a bigger one, when doubtless it will be forthcoming. The Nose was standing—fit pedestal for such a monarch—on a box of fragrant Havanas, and seemed to derive ineffable satisfaction from the presence of an object so gratifying to his peculiar tastes. Standing near him was Tobacco, who, with a courtly grace, presented him with a snuff box,

out of which he regaled that Nose.

THE FOURTH TABLEAU

Represented Taste, its pleasures. Ceres, goddess of Agriculture, with the boy-god, Bacchus (more potent his sway, and more extended, boy though he be, than many other divinities) at her side, ready to stimulate her votaries should they flag in their devotion to her. The central figure was an immense Mouth, opened to receive what good things were set before it, and capacious enough to have consumed all the other characters of the picture. On a platform, a little lower than that whereon Ceres sat, was a fountain, which was very like, Mellen, Pears and Sugar cane; also the condiments wherewith the gourmand makes good things better, Pepper, Salt,—represented by the unfortunate Mrs. Lot, of whose untimely entrance into the salt market our readers are already aware — and Mushroom. The fruits—Apple, Cherry, Pine Apple, Peach and Banana—occupied the front of the stage, directly in the center of which was Wheat, the emblem and scepter of Ceres, who was being made violent love to by young Strawberry, while immediately to his right was Grape, represented by the young Bacchus astride a barrel, revelling in the fruits of his kingdom.

THE FIFTH TABLEAU.

This was the Sense of Touch, and in its conception and execution must be styled, with the first tableau, pre-eminently the feature of the evening. The divinity selected as presiding over the sense of touch was Venus, born of the sea, Below her were ranged the representatives of the five orders of architecture which the world has known—the Doric, Ionic, Corinthian, Composite and Egyptian —the latter represented by the Sphynx of the land of the Nile.

Two great hands in the center of the stage and in front, dispalyed impressively and plainly what the scene represented. To the rear of the stage were two gigantic figures representing, the one Heat, with flaming locks and dire aspect, with a crown of shining gold and a scepter of fire. the other Cold, an icicle as his baton, his beard decked with frost, his hair stiff with snow, his eye-balls fixed and glaring.

Directly in front of Venus was a globe, a map of the world, belted with the magic wires of the electric telegraph, by whose mystic means a single man with a single touch can put a girdle round the earth quicker than Ariel, the sprite, could made the journey. In a line in the front of the stage were the mechanical arts, which, relying solely upon touch, its accuracy and delicacy, of course deserved a place in the tableau, Sculpture and Painting, those two arts to the votaries of which it is given through their hands to transfer thought to marble and canvas, to make stone speak, and by the weaving together of a few colors, to tell the story in a second to the eye, that volumes must be needed to speak to the ear. Thistle, Wasp

and Scorpion were to the left, each, it is too well known to many, objects whose touch is felt too often for humanity's pleasure. Two more figures claim our attention, the one the Pen, which, armed with a quill, was controlling the very revolutions of the globe itself, was pointing the path for the telegraph, and with a scroll in his other hand, wherein were locked the secrets and the powers of Nature, was, with a face of conscious might, though withal careworn and pinched, watching the direction of the events which he had himself originated. The other was Death, the final touch which all of us must feel, whose clammy hand shall clasp those of ours, in whose embrace we shall all sink. He, too, was watching the World, which he, too, as surely as the Pen, had marked for his own, only his face was more determined and his power visibly greater.

THE SIXTH TABLEAU

Was the Revel of the Senses. As the curtain rose it discovered all the figures which had formed the other tableaux artistically grouped about the stage. There they remained for some little time, allowing the audience to feast their eyes upon them, until the band struck up a march when they slowly formed a line, and advanced into the floor formed by the boarding over of the parquette, then the ladies commenced to pour upon the stage, the music struck up, and away went the Krewe and their guests, in the whirling mazes of the dance. Many were the amusing scenes that occured. Many were the recognitions and fancied recognitions of their friends, and much was the merriment consequent thereon. Several wives knew, yes, just knew, that they saw their husbands, notwithstanding that the said husband had that very evening pleaded the necessity of setting up with a sick friend as a reason for not escorting them to the ball. Many young ladies affirmed most strongly that some of the Krewe danced strangely like Fitz Poodle or Smith, both of whom however, had asserted a thousand times most vehemently that they had never even the most distant idea of becoming a Mistick.

And so the ball continued, until as midnight approached nearer, the maskers became less and less, and when the first stroke of 12 was sounded, not one of Comus's band was to be seen: they had all taken to themselves wings and flown to that mysterous and altogether incomprehensible place where they reside for 364 days of every year, and whence they emerge on the 365th to delight and charm the good people of the Crescent City; and thus, with a last good night, they left their guests to enjoy yet a few more hours of the carnival.

All that we now have time to say of this is that it was one of the most elegant and superb affairs that the whole season has produced. The lateness of the hour at which this is written precludes the statement of anything further than that as every element--youth, beauty, fashion and elegance—necessary to a magnificent entertainment was there, it could not but have been an affair marked with brilliancy and eclat. On a subsequent occasion we may give a fuller account,

THE BALL.

A sight we may never look upon again was the array presented by the amphitheater, which alone was packed as closely with ladies as flowers in a huge bouquet, as varied and beautiful in the attire as their inanimate prototypes.

As the Krewe's march ended there was an audible breath of satisfaction at the prospects of shaking off the numbness consequent upon the long sitting during the tableaux and the desire to mix upon the magnetic boards of the ball room and give free scope to the expression of delight which had for hours been suppressed behind the lips of the sex whose gossipping qualities are not renowned in this clime alone but the whole world over.

The amphitheater was now transformed into a living kaleidoscope, by the evolutions of the fair ones in their attempt to extricate themselves from the throng and find an issue which would lead them into the ball-room. Many disappeared like meteors through the entrance doors amid the clamor of the jehus outside, bawling out at the top of their voices for the carriages of those whose fortitudes or tastes precluded them from mingling with the votaries of Terpsichore; in the opposite direction throngs of ladies who had now met with expensively gotten up cavaliers, were ascending the steps leading from the vestibule into the ball-room, which was soon so crowded that in vain did they strive to dance or even walk.

To sum up this year's production of the Mistick Krewe, it can be said that it was inferior in nothing to what it has hitherto given to its friends, and superior to some of its former representations. That the affair was at the Opera House, instead of the Varieties, was a matter of congratulation to all parties, because the accomodations were not only much larger, but much more convenient. The attendance was of course larger than ever before, for there were more seats to be filled.

Vale, then to the Mistick Krewe for another year, when they shall again appear to show to the people of New Orleans what a club can do when it attempts to cater to the pleasures of its friends. Long may the Krewe wave, and may we be on hand every year to to see it wave.

ART. VIII.—"ATLANTA IN CALYDON."

A TRAGEDY.

[By Charles Algernon Swinbourne.]

"Con tal que las costumbres de un autor sean puras y castas, importo muy poco qui no sean igualmente sereras sus obras" says Don Tomas de las Tones—that is—"if the habits of an author are chaste and pure, it does not matter so much if his books are not so

severely moral." As any authors printed thought lives longer, than he usually does, and therefore has a more powerful effect on more minds, than his individual existence can have—the falsity of Don Tomas' assertion is self-evident. The deepest instinct of humanity is a tendency to worship, to revere, to adore the highest intelligence and the most perfect beauty. This instinct given to lift man above the beasts into the spiritual life of God, like all the good gifts of the All-Father, is liable to perversion and degradation. It can either give man wings to soar into the divine ether which encompasses the one Eternal or sink him into the dust, a brutish worshipper of animal and purely sensual life, making him meaner and worse than the idols he has moulded for himself out of brute matter and filthy clay. Sometimes, we meet with men, who seem to incarnate the Greek myth of satyrs and Fauns, who have the head of a god, with the feet of a goat, and these mixed beings are disagreeable and painful to us, they shock our natural instincts of race, they lower and degrade humanity. It is an impulse with us, to blot them out of existence, as it was with the beauty-loving Spartans to destroy all deformed childrem. So a man who sins in thought, and prints his sinful thought, to infect, or confirm, evil in other men's souls, should be crushed without pity. The only censor of public morals left to us in this wise age of tolerance, is the public Press. The newspapers of the day have not shrunk from this duty, in the instance of Mr. Swinebourne. Here is a man of irreproachable personal morals, whose books have been condemned as gross, licentious and depraved. It was unfortunate for Mr. Swinbourne, that Carleton, his American publisher, should have issued his first book of poems, in the style, and under the name chosen. The title of the book we believe, was given by the American publishers. In England the *Laus Veneris*, was simply called a book of "poems," by C. A. Swinbourne—Carleton took the title of this book, from the first poem in the collection—Swinbourne wrote this poem upon the well known legend, which had already been treated by Treck, in his history of the faithful Eckhart, (in the Phantiasus) by Heine, and by Owen Meredith, in his Tannenhauser—a story which has even been set to music and sung as an opera, and so Swinbourne would suppose was doubtless familiar to the public. Swinbourne is a scholar passionately devoted to and thoroughly permeated with Greek

thought, and we doubt if he had any intention to shock the world by what we may call the nudity, of his words. A man less pure, might not have written so impurely—just as if Ouida had been a wife instead of an old maid, she would not have dared to write many scenes that she has ventured to depict We are no advocates of mere prudery, nor do we admire *"precieuses ridicules,"* either among men or women. A pure artistic or scientific eye examines the morphology of nature, with one and the same singleness and chastity of vision. But one would not put copies of Titian's Venus in every drawing room—nor give into the hands of young virginal beings the works of Catullus, Tibullus, Apuleius, Achilles Tatius, Terence, Ovid, Longinus, or Swinbourne, or Heine, or Ouida. Yet, we must say one word in behalf of Mr. Swinbourne. There are what we consider, in our modern thought, many indecent words and licentious suggestions, perhaps, in that first book of his. But, reading the book as we did, simply out of curiosity—being advanced to the meridian of years and promoted to the freedom of all literature—we laid it down, impressed, first, with the wonderful rhythm and beautiful melody of the verse; secondly, with the Greekness of the thought, its antique beauty and simpleness, and thirdly, with the intensity of the sadness of its tone—the bitter experience of Solomon in Ecclesiastes—"all is but vanity and vexation of spirit." Mr. Swinbourne seemed to have led us through a fearful charnel house, filled with burnt out ashes of all so-called pleasure—of all sad utterances, the saddest we ever read is that "Burden of Fair Women!" We do not see how reading these poems can inspire lustful thoughts. To us they exhibit simply the fearful leprosy—the disappointment and anguish, which clings and wraps itself like a Nessus-fire around the victims of Anteros. We think Mr. Swinbourne's first poems are fearful, dreadful pictures, bitter, sad, forlorn in hopelessness, as terrible to read, as it was to us, to gaze upon Gerault's picture of the corpses and the dying, upon the wreck of the Medusa—but they did not strike us as lascivious. In the "Atalanta," we see Mr. Swinbourne in a new phase. This one little tragedy sets him up on the throne of our noblest Poets. Shelby and Keats must make room for a brother. Swinbourne might have read this tragedy before an Athenian audience and they would have applauded it. According to Greek custom, Swinbourne selects a well-

known legend and reworks it. It is the story of the hunting of the wild boar, sent by Diana to devastate Calydon—"a woeful hunting," as the old English ballad says of another chase—and which ended in the death of the noble Prince Meleager, whose life was ended by the burning of the charred brand, to which his existence had been attached by the Fates, at his birth. The brand is cast into the fire by his mother, Althæa, in a moment of madness, occasioned by the slaying of her two brothers by the hand of her son. These brothers, loving the fair Atalanta, desperate at her preference of the noble Meleager, angry at the Prince for laying at the damsel's feet, the trophy of the slain boar's skin, which her lance had first struck, and to which she should have been entitled—having hit the boar first and wounded him severely—by the laws of the chase, as well as by chivalry and courtesy, set upon Atalanta, and strive to take the boar's skin away from her. Meleager defends her, and kills his uncles. The plot is simple. The execution of the work very beautiful.

The drama opens with a prayer of the chief huntsman to Artemis and Apollo. One stanza in this reminds us of another in the Spanish Gypsy. The huntsman says to the Sun:

> "Rise up, shine, stretch thine hand out, with thy bow;
> Touch the most dimmest height of trembling heaven,
> And burn *and break* the dark about thy ways,
> *Shot through and through with arrows.*"

George Elliott says:

> "Day, the mighty Giver!
> *Pierced by shafts of Time, he bleeds.*"

The same image differently applied. Swinbourne's the Greek idea of the "far-darting Phœbus" shooting the Python Darkness—and George Elliott's, a fanciful image of Phœbus himself, shot by old Time—dying sunset clouds of crimson blood—Swinbourne's is the most poetic, and most beautiful use of the image. In truth, we are like the Greeks. We dislike La Morgue-ish images, or exhibitions—blood is disgusting to us, it cannot be idealized. "It is the life," and we shrink from the gross imitation, or images of Death in any shape. The huntsman speaks of the chase of the boar, and prays in behalf of the maiden rose, of all thy maids.

> "Arcadian Atalanta, snowy-souled
> Fair as the snow, 'and footed as the wind,'"

who has come "o'er the firm hills" and "the fleeting sea" to join

in the hunt of the wild boar. Then comes a chorus, which is so beautiful one hardly knows where to begin to pick out gems of verse. It commences :

"When the hounds of Spring are on Winter's tracts
She, mother of months, in meadow or plain,
Tells the shadows and windy places
With lisp of leaves, and ripple of rain."

The verses literally sing of themselves. See this :

"And Time remembered, is quite forgotten
And frosts are slain, and flowers begotten
And in green underwood, and cover,
Blossom by blossom, the Spring begins.
The full streams feed, on flower of rushes,
Ripe grasses trammel a traveling foot,
The faint fresh flame of the song year, flushes,
From leaf to flower, and flower to fruit ;
And fruit, and leaf, are as gold and fire,
And the oat is heard above the lyre,
And the hoof'd heel of a satyr crushes,
The chestnut-husk at the chestnut root.
And Pan by noon, and Bacchus by night,
Fleeter of foot than the fleet foot kid,
Follow with dancing and fills with delight
The Mœnad and the Bassarid ;
And soft as lips that laugh and hide,
The laughing leaves of the trees divide,
And screen from seeing, and leave in sight
The God pursuing, the maiden hid.
The ivy falls with the Bacchanal's hair,
Over her eyebrows, hiding her eyes ;
The wild vine slipping down leaves bare
Her bright breast shortening into sighs ;
The wild vine slips, with the weight of its leaves,
But the twining catches and cleaves
To the limbs that glitter, the feet that scare,
The wolf that follows, the fawn that flies."

Swinbourne *saw* these pictures in his fancy, and he makes us see them, too. Althæa enters now, troubled by an evil dream, darkened by the adumbrating wings of Fate. She reproaches the chorus with its joy ; reasons bitterly of the evil that is mixed with man's best good, almost curses the gods. The chorus asks :

"Have they not given life, and the end of life ?"

Althæa replies :

"Lo, where they heal, they help not ; thus they do,
They mock us with a little politeness,
And we say prayers and weep ; but at the last,
Sparing a while, they smite, and spare no whip."

Althæa sees that both her sons and her brothers love Atalanta, and she—loves her not—she fears mischief—she says of love :

"Love, a thwart sea—wind, full of rain and foam."

She wishes, like a woman, that Atalanta "had sought in some cold gulf of sea, love; or in dens where strange beasts lurk, or fire, or snows on the extreme hills or on land where no spring is; I would she had sought therein and found, or even love had found her here." The chorus defends and describes the holy maiden, who has no thought of love, but is a firm votaress of Artemis. Althæa listens, but argues warmly, and matched as she is, anticipates anguish, as yet undefined. She tells how her dreadful dreams force her to weep at night:

> "Mine eyes
> Stain many tender borderies in the bed,
> Drawn up about my face that I may weep
> And the King wake not."

She describes the birth of her son and the entrance of the Fates, thus:

> "And one
> Saying, till the brand upon the hearth burn down,
> So long shall this man see good days, and live;
> And I, with gathered raiment, from the bed
> Sprang, and drew forth the brand, and cast on it
> Water, *and trod the flames, barefoot,* and *crushed*
> With *naked hand* spark beaten out of spark,
> And blew, and quenched it."

There are several touches of tenderest nature in this speech of Althæa that we have not space to particularize. Then follows another graceful singing chorus. The choruses throughout are the chief beauty of the drama. Althœa is the only character that disappoints us She is too cold—too argumentative. She is never *mad* enough to justify her casting the brand of her son's life into the fire. Though there are many beautiful verses in what she says, her action could only have been sympathized with by one seeing her insanity and passion, which we never do. She should have raged a little. The conclusion of this tragedy, the coming of messenger after messenger, one announcing the death of the boar by the hand of Meleager, and the slaying of the kinsmen by the Prince, are well contrived. The concluding verses of the tragedy, the lamentations of Meleager over his early death, the pure grief of Atalanta, the sympathy of the chorus and semi-chorus, the wailing of Althæa, are exceedingly beautiful. We have read the poem repeatedly, and with unalloyed delight. The dedicatory verses to the memory of Walter Savage Landor are very touching and tender. They seem to have been written, at least a portion of them, during

Landor's life, just as he was about to sail for Italy, where he died. There seems to be a fitness of things in this dedication of, perhaps, the finest effort at Greek tragedy in modern days to Walter S. Landor, and one can understand why the verses were also written in the language Landor loved so much. Swinbourne's rythm and musical melody of line, is as remarkable in his Greek, as in his English poetry. The verses open with the usual implied prayer for safe departure, customary among the Greeks signified in the use of the verb in the optative. Swinbourne bids Landor farewell. We give a rough paraphrase of the beautiful lines :

"Thy face turned from the north ! Elsewhere the muses lead thee, well pleased, soft singing, (or breathing) wandering over the sea. Oh ! mouth divinely gifted, honey-tongued, Poseidon shall indeed weaken the ever following strains of the minstrel e're they can reach thine ear. Oh ! honey-voiced, for you we weep still ! You are vanished, still we need, and ever are we yearning for thy presence ! But say, how from the muses can he turn aside to others ?

"Behold he came ! crowned joyful, youth-loving, cherished. His gray head was encircled with many laurels. Sweetly he blew upon the Sicilian reed, and how sweet was the music from his strings ! Oft he rapidly turned the lyre.* Many times in the grassy vales had he found Apollo sleeping, blossom-sprinkled, and there joyful, the god entreated, had taught him how to sing. Soft the song of the pine trees, ever remembering the head, bringing ill luck to her abode, and how the god came to love the Hamadryad, and how the Megarian sea wave rocking put to sleep the daughter of Agamemnon, destroyed of her father, and how the command of the god sent Orestes, consumed by grief and worn out by the Furies, to the Temple at Delphos."

After Landor's death, Swinbourne added to the dedicating verses—portions of this last are very plaintive and mournful, throughout the whole runs the Greek belief of fate, or as we moderns phrase it, "predestination," and not a breath of Christian hope of immortality. It is beautiful— Greek—sorrowful—and *pagan*. Swinbourne repeats again the opening word "ocheo," bidding Landor farewell. But he

*This line will remind all of the ode of Anacreon.

remonstrates that he has gone "far away from friends, and now, in far distant shades he culls the flowers, the mallows of Persephone !" Then he utters words of grief natural to love, with a forcible expression of the frailty of man. "Dust is crumbling ! Life is crumbling, all that is greatest endures but for a day ! No life—only dust." He says he has changed nothing in the offering he brings ; simply presents it as it had "satisfied," the "present eyes" of his friend. "I come not, however great my desire, for the offering of worthy funeral rites at a distance ; for the dead I pour no libation, the splendor of mingled honey !" But—

"Now from afar, without the tomb, I lead the lamentations,"

After several verses of tender remembrance, according to Greek custom, he greets the dead : "Hail old man ! Hail beloved father ! Many minstrels are borne away, as we see, but not many are borne away so filled to the last with song. Hail ! and prosperity be thine of such sort as the dead may have—quietness from envy, and though alone, most beloved."

* * * * * * * *

The Graces cry out against the Fates ! Aphrodite cries aloud. The beautiful dancing muses have cast down their garlands. Never once from their shrine had the aged poet turned away.

* * * * * * * *

My friend was the happiest of mortals ! Whatever gifts he yearned for, the muses allotted him, and their utmost skill they taught him. Then brazen sleep ascended, and calmed his long life. And it is cheerful for thee ; beautiful and very glorious, to sleep in the hollow earth. In the distance around thee, the flame colored towers of victory, the slumbering waves, and the gushing springs, as if even yet the mother earth regretted thee.

It is well indeed ! You are blessed. Nothing will ever be sad again to you. Humble upon earth, Time and Fate must be victorious, whether one is happy, or whether one has sorrow. But often the dim light deceives us, and the darkness encompasses us. We are mourning wakefully. We shed tears for the sleeping, because in the tomb nothing more can reach the dead, and light nor darkness may show the sun to him. No dream of night, no sorrows, no waking shall be, however glad we may be, or however we may mourn. Otherwise one would always be seated, eternally suppli-

cating before the mortal Immortal—beautiful, against evil." It is almost to be wished that Mr. Swinbourne had given us this lovely lament in English verse instead of Greek, or made a paraphrase, as any we can make cannot do justice to its beauty.

ART. IX.—WHAT WE EAT IN UNREFINED SUGAR.

THE SUGAR INSECT.

BY ROBERT NICCOL, ESQ., GREENOCK, SCOTLAND.

[From an Essay on Sugar and Sugar Refining. Edinburgh: Published by Williams & Norgate.]

Raw sugar should never be used for dietetic or domestic purposes; because it contains organic impurities; and more especially immense numbers of disgusting looking insects, termed the "Sugar Insect"—found to be invariably present in raw or unrefined sugar. This insect is known by scientific men as the "Acarus Sacchari;" and when magnified to about 200 diameters, by the aid of a microscope, is found very much to resemble the sea-crab in its appearance.

No one, indeed, who has seen the filth and gross impurities extracted from the raw sugar in a refinery, could ever after use anything but the refined article. Pure sugar is, indeed, almost as desirable an article of food as pure water; and all should be anxious to substitute the refined for the raw material. Bad water and raw sugar abound in animalcules and vegetable impurities; but pure water and refined sugar are free from such. There are many grocers who sell raw sugar under the notion that it is more economical to their customers than the refined article; and the latter parties — unaware of anything to the contrary—readily purchase the commodity under this impression. This is, however, a a great mistake, which requires to be at once corrected. The finest qualities of raw sugar do invariably contain very gross impurities; but the cheapest kind of refined sugar is perfectly pure and wholesome in every respect; and it can be obtained at the grocer's shop at as reasonable a price as the raw material—the refined article being invariably found to be genuine, in so far at least as its purity and wholesome qualities are concerned. This, let it be observed, is no mere haphazard assertion; for it is founded on fact—and the writer submits the following in proof of what he here states.

The following are extracts from a pamphlet on the subject by Professor Cameron, of Dublin:

"In my capacity of public analyst for the city of Dublin, I have had occasion to examine, more or less minutely, nearly one hundred and fifty specimens of sugar in quality varying from the purest white to the darkest brown. The greater number of these samples were perfectly genuine: some were of rather indifferent quality: and the rest—about fifteen—were so impure as to be quite unfit for use: they abounded in organic filth, and contained great numbers of disgusting insects. All the samples of very inferior sugar were of the kind known as raw; and in no instance did I detect in the refined article the slightest trace of any substance injurious to the health, or repugnant to the feelings. With such facts as these before me, and writing in the interest of the consumer, I advocate the exclusive use of refined sugar. I unhesitatingly assert that no one who pays any attention to the purity of his food, aware of the nature of the impurities so frequently abounding in the raw article, could, without a feeling of loathing, make use of it. If, then, the exclusive use of sugar be a desideratum, it is not less desirable that those who are engaged in the manufacture of that article should receive due encouragement, consistent, of course, with the principles of free trade, from the governing bodies. But it will hardly be credited

by those not well informed on the subject of our national finances, that the present method of levying the duty upon sugar is needlessly inimical to the British refiner. It is so arranged that it obliges the planter to attempt, under the most adverse conditions, the refinement of sugar: it compels the British refiner to purchase the semi-purified article, and to undo all that the colonial refiner had done; and, finally, it makes the low class sugar consumed by the poorer classes pay more duty, in proportion to the pure sugar present, than the superior article which is purchased by the middle and upper classes. The use of raw sugar is rapidly on the decline and I venture to hope that the publication of this little treatise will aid to utterly extinguish it. Should its pages be glanced over by any influential member of the Legislature, I trust it may be the means of inducing him to turn his attention to the present anomalous method of levying the sugar duty, with a view to its early reformation.

"The insects found in sugar are Beetles and Acari, or mites. The beetles, which are more familiarly known to the sugar dealers than to the general public, may frequently be seen running nimbly along the tables in the sugar warerooms. The Acari are minute insects, and do not attract attention. There are several kinds of Acari: the cheese mite, the insect found in partially decomposed flour, and the minute parasite, which, by burrowing beneath the skin, produces the disease termed the itch—are all different varieties of Acari. The mite found in raw sugar is termed the Acarus sacchari, or Sugar Insect.

"The Acarus sacchari is a formidably organized, exceedingly lively, and decidedly ugly, little animal. From its oval-shaped body, stretches forth a proboscis terminating in a kind of scissors, with which it seizes upon its food. Its organs of locomotion consist of eight legs, each jointed and furnished at its extremity with a hook. In the sugar, its movements from one place to another are necessarily very slow, but when placed on a perfectly clean and dry surface, it moves along with great rapidity. It has been stated that the Acarus scabiei, or itch insect, possesses the power of leaping, but all my attempts to induce the Acarus sacchari to make a jump failed, although it was placed in the most favorable positions for the performance of such a feat.

"The disease termed psora, or scabies by medical men, but more popularly known by the expressive designation of the 'itch,' is, I venture to hope, only known by name to my readers. It is, I admit, not a nice theme to discourse upon, more, especially in connection with such a subject as sugar; but as this malady and its cause are intimately connected with my objection to the use of raw sugar as food, I cannot avoid—even at the risk of offending the sensibilities of some of my readers—alluding to them. So early as the twelfth century, an Arabian physician, named Abinzoar, observed that a skin disease was produce by the ravages of little insects. They burrowed, he says, beneath the skin of the hands, legs and feet, and produced pustules, containing fluid. From the description of these insects given by Abinzoar, it is quite evident that they were not 'little lice,' as he terms them, but a species of mite, or Acarus.

The same kind of insect was noticed some centuries afterwards by many distinguished physicians and naturalists, one of whom, named Bonomo, described it by the aid of a drawing, in the year 1683. The itch, then, is proved to be produced by this Acarus making burrows beneath the skin, and depositing therein its eggs; and hence the insect has been named the Acarus scabiei, or scab mite. Mange in horses, cattle and dogs, and scab in sheep, are essentially the same disease as itch in man. As a general rule the persons most liable to be preyed upon by the Acarus scabiei belong to the lower class—in fact, are members of the 'great unwashed' family; the disease is very rare amongst the middle and upper ranks, and, indeed, wherever the abundant use of soap and of clean linen prevails. Now, it is a noteworthy fact, that grocers' assistants and sugar warehouse-men are peculiarly liable to a kind of itch which affects their hands and wrists, but does not extend to any other part. These persons are usually of cleanly habits, and do not belong to the classes amongst whom the ordinary itch is so prevalent; there is, therefore, but one way of accounting for their tendency to contract that disease—namely, that the Acarus sacchari, having, like its congener, the Acarus scabiei, burrowing propensities, bores into their skin, and breeds there. The two kinds of Acari resemble each other very closely, but the sugar insect appears to be the larger

and more formidable. So common is this pustulous disease amongst persons engaged in the 'handling' (*i. e.* mixing) of sugar, that it has been termed the 'grocer's itch;' but I doubt very much that it differs in any specific respect from the ordinary variety of that nasty complaint. My colleague, Dr. Symes, surgeon to Dr. Steevens' Hospital, assures me that persons suffering from 'grocer's itch' are always to be found amongst the extern patients treated at that institution.

"The number of Acari found in raw sugar is sometimes exceedingly great, and in no instance is the article quite free from either the insects, or their ova, (eggs). Dr. Hassall, who was the first to notice their general occurrence in the raw sugar sold in London, found them in a living state in no fewer than 69 out of 72 samples. He did not detect them in a single specimen of refined sugar sold in Dublin, coinciding pretty closely with Dr. Hassall's experience. In the refined sorts, I found nothing but crystalizable and non-crystalizable sugar, and a little saline matter; in the raw kinds, organic and mineral filth—often in great abundance. One of the samples which I examined, contain a larger number of insects than I believe had previously been noticed, or at least recorded, by any other observer. It was sent to me, together with other articles, in May last (1863), by Mr. Horner, the master of the South Dublin Union Workhouse, and the following is the report which I made upon it: I have rarely examined a more inferior sample of sugar; it is extremely damp, contains a very large proportion of treacle, and a considerable amount of such impurities as sporules of a fungus, particles of cane, albumen, and starch granules. These substances, however, greatly detracting from the value of the sugar, are not injurious to health. I cannot say as much for another impurity which exists in great abundance in this sample—namely, a species of Acarus, closely resembling in appearance and nature the insect which, by burrowing into the skin, produces the itch. It is no exaggeration to affirm that there cannot be less than 100,000 of these insects in every pound of this sugar. In ten grains weight, I estimated no fewer than 500, most of which were so large as to be distinctly visible to the naked eye. It is inconceiveble that thousands of these creatures can be introduced into the stomach of a human being without serious endangerment to health. But not only is such sugar as this sample detrimental to health, it is also the least economical kind which can be employed. It is greatly impairs the flavor of tea and coffee; and its high proportion of water and other useless ingredients lowers its sweetening power to an extent which even its low price fails to compensate for. Many persons believe that coarse brown sugar sweetens better, or, to use the common phrase, "goes farther" than white sugar, but that is a mistake. A tea-spoonful of damp brown sugar will certainly sweeten a larger quantity of fluid than a spoonful of white sugar; but its does so because it is much heavier than the latter; but if equal weights be used it will be found that the white variety is by far the better sweetener. The kind of sugar which is both healthful and economical is the dry, large grained, and light colored variety. If you cannot obtain such an article, you should purchase the lightest brown kind; and bear in mind that such sugar as I have examined for you is the most inimical to health, and the least value for your money which you could possibly get.

"The publication of the foregoing report in the newspapers excited considerable interest in the public mind; for excepting a few scientific men, no one in Dublin appeared to have been previously aware of the existence of the Acarus sacchari. The assertion that one pound weight of raw sugar contained a hundred thousand active insects, must, no doubt, have appeared incredible to some people, but that I was not guilty of exaggerating the number was proved by the results of subsequent examinations made by other observers. A committee of microscopists, composed of Drs. Aldridge, Minchin, Symes and Booth, and Mr. Reynolds, visited the workhouse, and, in the presence of his officials examined the sugar and satisfied themselves that my account of it was, in every respect, an accurate one. Two samples of the sugar were also examined, one by Dr. John Barker, Curator of the Royal College of Surgeons, Ireland, the other by Dr. Hassall, of London, a very eminent authority upon the subject. In fifteen grains weight, Dr. Hassall found considerable over 100 living insects or at the rate of 42,000 per pound; and Dr. Barker estimated no fewer than 1,400 in forty-five grains weight, or at the rate of 268,000 Acari in each pound weight of sugar.

"With the exception of the date sugar made in the East*, every kind of raw sugar contains Acari. They are least numerous in the very damp, treacley kinds, because, as they are breathing animals, they cannot exist in treacle or water. If a spoonful of raw sugar be dissolved in a wine-glass full of water, the animalcules will speedily come to the surface, from which they may be skimmed off and transferred to the object-glass of the microscope. On the surface of the water they appear as white specks, and as they swim about vigorously, their movements are apparent to the naked eye.

"The Acari sacchari do not occur in refined sugar of any quality for the following reasons:—Firstly, because they cannot pass through the charcoal filters of the refinery; secondly, because refined sugar does not contain any nitrogenous substance (such as albumen) upon which they could feed—and I have already shown that even the most insignificant animals cannot subsist solely upon sugar, or upon any other kind of food destitute of nitrogen. The only inpurity found and that rarely, in refined sugar, is a trace of iron; its origin is easily explained: At the refinery, the sugar, after its solution in the water has been effected, is sometimes put into iron cisterns, where it remains until the filters are ready for its reception. If, through negligence, the solution is allowed to remain too long in contact with the iron, it is certain to dissolve a minute portion of the metal, from which its subsequent treatment fails to entirely separate it. When iron in solution comes in contact with the body termed tannic acid, the two combine and form a black substance, which is the basis of most kinds of black ink. Tannic acid is a natural ingredient of tea; if, therefore, sugar containing iron be dissolved in an infusion of tea, the fluid will instantly acquire an inky hue. The presence of a small quantity of iron in sugar does not in the slightest degree injure its nutritive, healthful qualities: still as tea resembling ink in appearance, however agreeable to the palate, would be displeasing to the eye, sugar which would thus affect its color is unfitted for domestic use.

"Would any one, with the slightest pretension to cleanly notions, drink stagnant water if he could as easily obtain the element pure and sparkling from the fountain? May I not add, is there any one so indifferent as to the purity of his food, who would consume raw sugar, knowing it to be teeming with disgusting forms of animals life, if the pure article were as readily obtainable? The sanitary reformers have clearly proved that the health of a community is, to a great extent, dependent upon the quality of the water they drink; and the public at large accept of the philosopher's reasoning. At the present moment the citizen's of Dublin are heavily increasing their already ponderous load of taxation for the purpose of obtaining an abundant supply of pure water. The water which the citizens of Dublin at present use is consided unwholesome, because it contains low forms of vegetable life, and abounds in animalcules; and these are just the kind of impurities which exist—but in immensely greater quantities—in raw sugar. Is it not, therefore, but rational that if we substitute the pellucid water of the Vartry for the stagnant fluid of the canals, we should for the same reason reject the filthy raw sugar, and supply its place with the purified products of the refiner? The parallelism, in a sanitary point of view, between bad water and raw sugar is complete: it is equally so between pure water and refined sugar."

The following eminent authority is quoted as additional evidence on the importance of this subject:

"The unfiltered sugar, or Muscovado, as it comes from the Colonies, contains many impurities, and should never be used. Many peculiar species of beetles are found in it, One, especially, infests all sugar houses, But the Acarus sacchari, is the animal that, of all others, is the most to be avoided; it is not found in filtered sugar. It is an animal somewhat like an itch insect, and a d awing would not be pleasant in an article on sugar. The grocers' itch is in all probability produced by the handling of Muscovado sugar, and the attacks of this insect. Dr. Hassall advises the use of refined sugar only The editor is able to state that, in Lancashire at least, purified or filtered sugars, of various shades of color, are everywhere to be had, and they are as free from insects as the purest white lumps."—*Dr. Sheridan Muspratt's Chemistry, Vol. II., p.* 1002. *Article, Sugar.*

*The date sugar, which is free from Acari, is practically a refined kind; its crystals having been repeatedly "clayed," or washed with water.

ART. X.—IMMIGRANTS WANTED.

Having been all our lives familiar with the social and industrial system of the South, we consider ourselves amply competent to discuss any change in the one or the other. The European nations sent African slaves into America to sweeten their coffee and cheapen their clothing. The Southern people adapted this industry to agriculture, leaving to others the sister arts of commerce and manufactures. The world having decided to repeal its law of African slavery, the Southern people will readjust their industrial and social systems accordingly. Under the slave system the Southern States had neither unemployed labor nor paupers. Under this system the Southern people supported the unemployed on the products of agriculture. They had no paupers. Assailed as they had been for many years past by indirect and insidious attacks upon their social safety, it was natural that they should have been apprehensive of strangers. Independent in their circumstaces, they were indifferent to the acquisition of capital. It is to be regretted, moreover, that there was not that welcome adoption of a railroad system which would have facilitated so much the introduction of new elements of power.

With the change of system comes a proper change of policy Efforts have been made to dismount the white man and put the negro in the saddle. Our own citizens have been excluded from their own Legislature, and incompetent and prejudiced strangers have been called to tax our property and appropriate the money. We have an immense amount of poverty, and the crime consequent upon idleness, therefore the introduction of more white numbers, the addition of intelligent skill, and the accumulation of more capital is necessary to adapt our system to the new exigencies which have been cast upon us. It is not a little curious that while the South was indifferent to the vast political and physical power of immigration, the South for a long time furnished the only means by which immigrants were brought into the country. At the time when the Southern crop of cotton and tobacco furnished the sole exports of any consequence, the only means by which Bremen, or Dublin, could send their surplus numbers to America was by the cotton ships, which, after having delivered their Southern freight in Europe, returned to New York with hundreds in the steerage. These were transported by canal and railroad, to be setteled upon the national lands bestowed upon States and railroad companies, and immigrants, in free gift.

That the South never employed its own staple exports for the purpose of bringing back this element of political power—this back freight of wealth, numbers and intelligence—is a singular proof of that independence in its own resources which has characterized it. The South now needs immigration—1. Because it is proper to im-

press foreigners coming among us, or even through our country, with more just sentiments than they see published by our opponents. 2. Because we need the moral and intellectual influence of white foreigners in addition to our own people. And in this connection we distinctly repeat that we especially desire the immigration of the people of any, or all, of the United States who come with the intention, or in good faith to promote our interests in common with their own. All such men will be, and are, cherished and protected. We will now consider—1. The facilities. 2. The obstacles. 3. The organization of an immigrant business through the port of New Orleans.

The facilities consist—1. In the health and comfort of our winter climate. An immigrant from the German States will lay by his crop in November. He may cross the Atlantic below the latitudes of storms and icebergs during the entire winter. He will find abundant steam or sail tonnage for New Orleans from almost any port in northern Europe. Arrived at this city, he would meet river craft prepared to take him to the highest point of river connection with the Western railroads, which now run from the Mississippi to every place accessible to immigrants. He will find a great number of his own countrymen, of high character and intelligence, ready to receive, to aid and to forward his views in any manner possible.

In addition to these facilities, which involve so little change of the medium of transportation, the baggage of the immigrant is not weighed and taxed as on the railroad and canal routes of the North. The charges on this route are certainly one-third less than on any other, and the winter climate more favorable to the health and comfort of the immigrant. The obstacles to this immigration into the Southern States are peculiar, and must require a special organization to remove them. When Mr. Everett of London discovered the Southern States about a year ago he was kind enough to explain what we should do to obtain immigrants. We took occasion to write, for his information, what we now repeat. The South has climate, fertility, and profitable staples. Immigrants coming to the United States wish to buy land. They wish to settle together. If they go to the Northwest they can find gift lands, or they can buy other public lands at a price fixed, and with a parchment title direct from the Government and not derivative. They can find these lands in block, and can settle together, if they wish a colony. We have only to reflect that to a foreigner this circumstance of good land, at a fixed price, and a Government warranty of title is the highest inducement. Then, there are the subordinate attractions of a climate isothermal with their own, the same staples, and the same society to which they have been accustomed.

Now let us look at the South. The lands in Carolina and Virginia are of irregular extent and boundaries. To purchase a small tract the immigrant must risk the title of a large one. Throughout the South, with the exception of the swamp lands, the land subject to entry is poor. Those lands which have been held by our planters are subject to the usual uncertainties of title in old communities. If

an immigrant purchases a tract of land in a neighborhood he cannot get, at similar prices, land enough suitable to settle others around him, because the sale of one tract is certain to enhance the price of those around it. These are disadvantages which surround all long settled communities. These are the reasons which make the Germans pass through even the paradise of New England and settle on the certain titles and fixed prices of the West. There is as little immigration upon the farming lands of the Northern as of the Southern Atlantic States—perhaps there is less. This, we have long been satisfied, is the great reason why, with all our advantages, we cannot compete with the Government of the United States in selling lands to foreigners.

There are some subordinate to immigration which we will treat in explaining how they are to be removed. To bring the private land titles of the Southern States into competition with the public lands of the United States, it will be necessary to consolidate and organize large bodies of land, with a fixed price, and a verified title. This can be done by the formation of incorporated companies which shall take a fee simple title from private landholders, and open land offices in which the tracts are described, the prices fixed, and the titles guaranteed to the purchaser, precisely as is done by the United States. All uncertainty of title, variation in price, and of compliance with contract, having been removed, the immigrant will proceed to consider the very great advantages of settlement in the South. We are satisfied that they will be deemed sufficient to attract a large share of the immigration from Europe and the Northern States of the Union. Those immigrants who are destined for the upper and interior West, and especially beyond the Mississppi, will find this their best way. Their passage by this route would be of incalculable profit to us. The passage money of only one hundred thousand immigrants destined for Idaho, or Montana, and the rest of the mineral regions, would help our steamboats and barges very much.

But we need here just such an important depot as that at Castle Garden. Our Governor should correspond with the authorities of the other Southern and Western States, and also with the railroad companies of the West, so as to secure their aid in building up, and maintaining such a depot. Neither New Orleans nor Louisiana should bear the whole expense of such an institution. The Government of the United States might give to New Orleans, as it did to New York, a Commissioner of Immigration to assist and protect this interest. The Western States might demand from the Government the appointment of Western Consuls and Ministers in the States of Northern Europe, who would teach the advantages of this route to the national domain, and counteract the misrepresentation of our climate, of our lands, and even of our society, which has been so sedulously spread throughout the civilized world.

The legislators of the South should take up this subject and understand its bearing and importance. In Georgia, Mississippi and Virginia the whole public interest seems involved in the reconstruc-

tion act—in the problem how to relieve individual disfranchisement and suppress negro influence. This is alone to be effected by such practical and material measures as the importation of ready made white people. We commend immigration into, or through, the South as the most immediate and effective mode of restoring the influence and prosperity of the South. It is a subject so comprehensive as to be worthy the study of every statesman.

ART. XI.—THE WINE CASE.

DECISION OF JUDGE DURELL, UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT.

We gave a synopsis of the decision delivered by Judge Durell, on the first of the great wine cases.

We subjion the decision in full, as it involves a matter of interest to a large number of our merchants. The Judge overruled the motion made by the defendant for a trial by jury:

The libel of information in this case is framed under the act of March 3, 1863, 12 Statutes at Large, 737. That act changed the method in which importations should be made, both as to the forms to be observed aboard and at the port of entry. The importance of that change is shown by an examination of the acts touching importations passed prior to the statute of 1863, under the acts of 1818 and '23, 3 Statutes at Large, 435 and 733. All invoices of goods imported into this country by persons residing out of the United States, were required to be verified by oath before a consul or other officer of the United States residing aboard. By the act of 1862, 12 Statutes at Large, 558, all invoices, whether by persons residing in the United States, or otherwise, were required to be verified by oath before the consul or commercial agent of the United states, in the district where the goods are manufactured, or from which they are sent, and if there be no consul or commercial agent of the United States in the said district, the verification shall be made by the consul or commercial agent of the United States at the nearest point, or at the port from which the goods are shipped, in which case the oath shall be administered by some public officer duly authorized to administer oaths, and transmitted with a copy of the invoice, to the consul or commercial agent for his authentication. The act of 1863 changed the entire system with regard to invoices. The verification abroad by oath was dispensed with, and it provided that the owner should present to the nearest consul of our Government invoices in triplicate, giving the cost or actual market value of the merchandise sought to be imported, and that these invoices should have thereon indorsed a declaration that "they were in all respects true," and that they contain a true statement of the actual cost or market value of said merchandise at the time when, and at the place where, the same was purchased or produced. It further requires that if any owner shall knowingly make, or attempt to make, an entry of merchandise by means of any false invoice, or by means of any other false or fraudulent practice or appliance whatever the said merchandise shall be forfeited. The act also requires that the form of the oaths required by the act of 1823 shall be so modified as to conform to the provisions of the act of 1853. The statute appears to me to have been most ably devised to secure true and complete information as to all importations, thus to enable the officers of customs to collect the just revenues of the Government, and it is the duty of the court to apply it firmly and strictly in aid of so important an object of legislation. The violations of the statute, charged in the libel, and which it will be necessary for me to consider, are three. 1. The entry of the wines, made by Piaggio, without taking the requisite oath. 2. An entry made knowingly with an invoice and declaration containing false and frandulent undervaluations; and 3d, "an entry made knowingly, with an invoice and declaration, containing false and fraudulent statement touching the character of the merchaneise imported."

1. As to the entry made by Piaggio without taking the requisite oath. Piaggio

took the oath prescribed by the act of 1823, and not the one prescribed by the act of 1823 so modified as to conform to the provisions of the act of 1863. Without said conformity the invoice, and entry made, would in some important particulars have no verification oaths other than the declaration signed aboard. The taking of the oath prescrbied by the act of 1823 not so modified as to conform to the provisions of the act of 1863, was an entry, or an attempt to make an entry by means of a "fraudulent document or paper," or by means of a "false or fraudulent practice or appliance" under the statute, and is punishable with a forfeiture of the goods so entered or attempted to be entered. 2 As to the undervaluation.—The valued invoice was five francs the case. The weight of testimony shows that the actual value of the red wine was eight and a half francs the case; the cost of box, bottles, corks, capsules, labels and other requesites of preparation for shipment is shown to be four francs sixteen centimes the case, leaving, according to the invoice valuation, but eighty-four centimes or about 16 cents as the value of the contents of of the 12 bottles, being 1½ of a cent per bottle. I cannot come to the conclusion that such a valuation carries with it the truth.

The invoices of subsequent importations introduced on the part of the Government, and wherein wines of the same quality as that libeled in this case at 7½ francs, while the testimony shows little or no intermediate variation in price, weigh heavily with the court.

Wherefore, after a full review and careful consideration of the evidence adduced on both sides, I am satisfied that the under valuation is made out. 3d. "As to the false and fraudulent statements touching the character of the merchandise imported, that the wine was falsely described in the invoice, is admitted, nay, urged by the claimant, this admission is conclusive against him, for the invoice is not "in all respects true," and the false description or naming of the wines was a "false, fraudulent practice" under the statute. Ballinger's champagne, 3 Wallace 560, 564. Moreover, the act of June 30, 1864, subjects imitations to the highest rate of duty imposed upon the "article imitated." This wine, the red wine, is labelled. "Blaye Seperieure," and is so called in the invoice. If it is "Blay Superieure," then it should have paid duty at the rate of eighteen francs the case, such having been shown to be the value of the best qualities of "Blaye." If it is an imitation, then again it should have paid a duty at the rate of eighteen francs the, case, that being the value of the wine imitated. Thus, in either case, there was a palpable fraud upon the revenue attempted. I find, as the facts of the case, that the allegations contained in the first article of the original libel of information, and in the first, second and third articles of the amended libel of information, have been proved. My judgement, therefore, is that the property libeled in this suit be condemned and forfeited to the United States.

ART. XII.—IMMIGRATION.

Number of Arrivals at New York, and Where They Came From—Destination of the Immigrants—Prejudice Against the South—The Registration and Employment Bureaus, etc.

[From the New York Herald.]

While America continues to gather within her dominion the most useful and at the same time the largest number by far, of all those who leave their native soil for new homes, it has been found necessary for the benefit of the emigrant, as well as of the country, to bring the control of this new population under some kind of system upon its arrival. New York is the port whence most of them land and whence most of them start out for the interior, either to select a place for their settlement or to reach the place already

determined on. This gave rise to the establishment of the Emigrant Depot at Castle Garden, in charge of a body known as the Commissioners of Emigration. A correct record is here kept of all the arrivals. The captain of every vessel bringing passengers is bound by law to report their names and ages and nationality to the Commissioners of Emigration, through the Mayor of the city. To control these reports, the Commissioners employ a number of boarding-officers, who meet each arriving ship in the bay and report directly to the Superintendent at Castle Garden the number of passengers and their nationality, as they ascertain them on board.

NUMBER OF EMIGRANTS FOR 1868.

From these reports it is ascertained that during the year 1868 there have arrived at this port 213,686 persons, which according to their nationalties, are divided as follows:

Germany	101,989	Russia	145
Ireland	47,571	South America	134
England	29,695	Nova Scotia	53
Sweden	14,520	China	49
Scotland	7,390	Mexico	34
Switzerland	3,302	Canada	33
France	2,811	Australia	26
Holland	1,265	Turkey	23
Denmark	1,087	Central America	21
Norway	1,008	Portugal	13
Italy	993	Greece	10
Wales	699	Africa	10
Poland	268	Sicily	3
Spain	210	Japan	3
West Indies	171	East Indies	2
Belgium	149	Sardinia	1
Grand total			113,686

This table is very instructive. In the first place it shows the immigration from Germany to be nearly one-half of the whole number of emigrants landed. Further it proves the tide of German immigration to be nearly two and a half times as great as that from Ireland, and that even England, the "blessed, bold, merry England," stands but a third in the list in point of numbers, while France, with all the denunciations of her Government and her Emperor by Radical visionaries, seems so much contented with herself that of her 40,000,000 of people less than 3,000 sought homes in this country. China makes a beginning and sends forty-nine of her pig-tailed natives, and the question may arise whether this is not the advance guard of a much larger stream hitherward of the people of the "Empire of Middle." Suggestive it is that ten emigrants have landed here from Africa, and it is to be regretted that the table does not specify whether they were black, brown, coffee or maroon-colored or mixed,

in order that the Republican committees may know whether there was a "nigger in the pile" of this arrival, and they might smell it out somehow or other whether this was or was not a revival of the African slave-trade.

It is hardly possible that the twenty-two Turks could have exerted such an influence among our people as to kill off Philhellenism by the roots; though it is surmised that they have gone West to swell the number of those who enjoy the theocratic rule of Brigham Young around Salt Lake. Unfortunately no record seems to have been kept of the number of performing monkeys on wheezy hand-organs in possession of the 993 Italians, else the increase of organ-grinders in our streets might be statistically accounted for.

DESTINATION OF EMMIGRANTS.

Under this head a complete record is kept of all the emigrants leaving Castle Garden, and the grand total for the year given in the following figures. To the State of:

Maine	293	Alabama	114
New Hampshire	412	Florida	34
Vermont	533	Mississippi	84
Massachusetts	7,004	Louisiana	564
Rhode Island	2,279	Iowa	7,010
Connecticut	3,458	Oregon	30
New York	65,714	Texas	266
New Jersey	5,916	Wisconsin	16,537
Pennsylvania	6,926	California	3,980
Delaware	409	Nebraska	1,410
Maryland	1,604	Utah	3,115
Ohio	11,133	New Mexico	5
Indiana	3,852	Montana	14
Illinois	34,625	Navada	18
Kentucky	1,292	Dakota	38
Michigan	7,324	Colorado	38
Missouri	6,517	Idaho	15
Kansas	1,085	Central America	21
Arkansas	78	Cuba	14
Minnesota	5,891	British Columbia	66
District of Columbia.	873	Canada	2,723
We st Virginia	22	Nova Scotia	150
Virginia	731	New Brunswick	113
Tennessee	549	Mexico	14
North Carolina	114	West Indies	14
South Carolina	148	South America	180
Georgia	127		

From this list some very instructive facts may be gathered It is apparent that the great Western States, especially Illinois, are the favorite localities for the settlement of the immigrant population. They have all absorbed, more or less largely, this stream of this new population. Wisconsin, Ohio, Iowa, Minnesota and Michigan rank-

ing next to Illinois in numbers. But why should Indiana receive less by one-half than Massachusetts? Have over seven thousand been attracted to the State of Cape Cod by the fisheries or the factories, and have the agricultural lands, the cities and villages of Indiana no such inducements to offer to the immigrant? Even the far-off territory of Utah, with its Mormonism, stands on the list with almost as large a figure as Indiana, and surely, in view of the easy procurement of divorces in the latter State, no one Mormonically inclined need prefer Utah on that account.

THE LABOR EXCHANGE.

The bureau in Castle Garden has proved itself a great benefit. Those among the emigrants who seek employment are referred and advised and promptly procured situations. During the year just passed no less than 18, 114 males have thus received situations, and 13,029 females. Of the males 4,811 were mechanics and 13,803 common labors and agriculturists. Of the females, 474 were laborers and 14,555 house servants; 6,579 males and 6,684 females obtained situations in this city; 5,020 males and 2,979 females received employment in the State of New York outside of this city, and 6,515 males and 3,066 females were sent to situations provided for them though the agency of this office in various other States, of whom, however, but a very small proportion went South. In regard to this matter of

IMMIGRATION TO THE SOUTH

a few facts may here be stated. In the first place, it has been ascertained as a remarkable fact that nearly all the immigrants arriving here are already more or less prejudiced against the Southern States. A large number have friends, acquaintances, relatives in this country, with whom they have corresponded and these generally advise the new comer beforehand not to go South. The vast railroad interests and land speculating cliques in the Western States, following the example of the Illinois Central Railroad, have their agents in Germany and Ireland laboriously engaged in extolling the advantages of their own particular section, but, by word of mouth and through the press, to picture the condition of the South, the feeling of the people, and the kind of reception awaiting an immigrant, in such colors as to deter every one from seeking a home in that unfortunate section of our country. There have lately been organized in the South German immigrant societies at Richmond, Va., and at Nashville and Memphis, in Tennessee; but these societies, if they would do any good for their neighborhood, should busy themselves in Europe, and not in the Castle Garden, and should make efforts to counteract the influences working against them at the source of immigration.

THE BUREAU OF INFORMATION.

This bureau is a very useful adjunct to the Castle Garden depot. Here those who have friends or kindred expecting them in this country are "delivered" to their charge. Of the whole number arrived,

about twelve per cent. pass through this bureau. It is a remarkable fact, brought out by the statistics of the operations, that in a very large number of cases, girls and boys emigrate alone, and by their industry and economy succeed in saving enough to send over for their brothers, sisters, and often their parents. Thousands of husbands battle alone for years until they are finally enabled to pay for the passage hither of their families and provide them with a home; and even many wives have ventured here, alone and friendless, to live, and earn, and save enough to send for their husbands, and children. The tricks resorted to by runners and others, even the crews of vessels, to obtain control of girls emigrating alone, are often intricate; but in this matter the officers in charge of the depot and of this bureau generally succeed in eluding them, thus saving the poor strange girls from the wiles of unscrupulous men.

ART. XIII.—CHICAGO AND THE MISSISSIPPI OUTLET.

The very able article in your last number on the history of this grand outlet gives an accurate synopsis of what has been done for diverting the trade of the West and Southwest towards its natural channel to the markets of the world, the Father of Waters. And it does seem, if the pun may be allowed, that the nearer we have been to its banks, the farther we have been from its advantages. The writer of the article we have quoted is, however, at only one end of the triangle, and there may be more truth than poetry in the assumption of the Cairo writer who claims that Chicago and St. Louis are only the Manchester and Birmingham to their Liverpool at Cairo, and this writer further says:

"The natural and economical route for the agricultural surplus of the territory drained by the Upper Mississippi and its tributaries, is unquestionably that river itself. The impossibility of railroad competition is demonstrable. A fact of equal certainty is that that point from which vessels of large tonnage may float at all times and seasons, is the point that *must* become the great distributing focus or centre for that territory. To insist that Cairo is not that point, is to combat one's own senses and deny a truth that is confirmed by every returning summer or winter. This being true, it should be the common purpose of Cairo and St. Louis to claim our own from Chicago; to wrest from her the west-Mississippi trade, which she burdens with an undue cost of carriage, and to turn it into that way that was channeled for it by the hand of the Almighty. In this great work St. Louis may become an efficient co-worker, and in doing so establish herself as a Milwaukee to our Chicago or a 'Manchester to our Liverpool.' The suspension of navigation could be almost cured by the construction of a railroad hither, and to this work the enterprising and liberal minded men of that city should heartily lend themselves as occasion might demand."

Now Chicago and St. Louis are tributary to us so far as this, that

we have the only all-year outlet to the markets of the world for the cereals of the West.

We claim, as we have always claimed, non-competition for five months of the year, and open competition for the balance. We claim that hundreds of millions of bushels of grain *must* seek Eastern or European consumption through the navigable waters of the Mississippi. It will be the mission of railroads to permeate every section of our habitable domain, carrying goods to the people and bringing back their produce to the banks of the rivers, there to be massed in elevators and warehouses, but from thence it must be transported in boats and barges to New Orleans—the last entrepot between the producer and consumer, and that we alone offer the outlet that the West needs. Various attempts have been made, and have again and again failed, to relieve the West. All, so far, has only been vanity and vexation of spirit. The ablest men in the West, as will be seen by the published report of the Governor General of Canada, only deepens the feeling in the minds of the West that they needed the outlet. They did not widen the canals of the Canadian Dominion, nor can all artificial efforts relieve the ice blockade that is put against the commerce of the West by the rebellious snow and cold of winter, unless they run it by our route. St. Louis and Chicago are dependent upon New Orleans only for an outlet and inlet. We are their natural depot and entrepot to the markets of the world. Our natural highway, the Mississippi, flows uninterruptedly to the sea, and there is enough in the West for all. Let the St. Lawrence be deepened, let the canals be enlarged, let all artificial means of communication be increased, and we have still to say to the West that she will yet need all her outlets. Indeed, we regard it as the most extraordinary development of Western America that it demands at once the outlet of the St. Lawrence and of the Mississippi. It is perfectly palpable that both these great works should be executed. We have heretofore shown what the ice blockade for 5-12ths of the year costs the single city of Chicago. When this immense sum shall have been multiplied by the progress of the whole West, it will be obvious that no obstacle which money can remove should be allowed between this region and the world markets. The route by the St. Lawrence is, of course, the most direct communication between the West and Northern Europe during the period when the navigation is open. The Mississippi, however, affords an outlet not only to the markets of Europe, but to those of the whole Southern continent of America, destined to be of more consequence to the West than all the other. We have therefore no antagonism to the northern outlet, which is as important to the West as the control of the whole line of canals, lakes and rivers along which the connection will be made. It is our purpose, however, to show the West that the Mississippi outlet is a more practicable and comprehensive commercial way than any other, and that no appropriation should be spared to render it immediately and completely useful.

1. The first impediment of the St. Lawrence outlet is the ice

blockade. This is no invention and no appropriation can remove it. The Ice King is inexorable. He will give do dispensation to either "king or kaiser."

2. The proposition now before Congress to enlarge the Welland Canal does not contemplate giving a greater depth of water than twelve feet.

3. The canal connection around Niagara is estimated at from twelve to sixteen millions of dollars. This, if put in the form of a toll to indemnify the investment, must add a permanent charge to this outlet.

4. The control of this outlet is at present within the jurisdiction of a foreign power. This we regard, however, as a temporary objection.

To the Mississippi outlet there is no such objection. It is always open and always accessible at all seasons and at every stage. The depth of water on the Balize bar is naturally seventeen feet, and the Government is pledged to deepen this outlet, at its own expense, by dredging, canalization, or other mechanical means. There is to be neither toll, tax nor restriction upon the use of this American water from its source to its mouth. This is the decree of the American West. There neither is, nor is like to be, any other jurisdiction over this stream.

The greatest value of the Balize outlet to the West consists in the fact that it is always open at that particular season of the year when the principal crop of the West is harvested and ready for market. Assuming that the grain exports alone amount to 60,000,000 bushels of wheat, Indian corn and other grains, it will be remembered that the wheat harvest and threshing are over by the 15th September. The navigation of the Eastern outlets by canal, lake and river is closed by the 15th November. Less than sixty days is, therefore, allowed the Western farmer to forward his crop. If he permits this period to pass, he must stand the cost and risk of storage, shrinkage and damage by water or other reasons. Worse than this, he may see the market price advance or decline before his eyes, without the power to avail himself of the one or to escape the other. With the corn crop, rapidly becoming, in Europe, the basis of food for animals, as well as men, the case is still worse. The harvest of this crop cannot be before October. It is scarcely dry enough to ship before the ice blockade is proclaimed. All the consequences stated, fall in a superior degree upon this crop, and it would seem, from the recent complaints of Illinois farmers and grain dealers, that the elevator and railroad rings begin wrecking this imprisoned staple as soon as it is fairly in their power. From all these disadvantages, the Mississippi comes to deliver the farmers of the West. Precisely at the time when obdurate nature combines with monopolist selfishness to deny the honest farmer the just rewards of his industry, the Mississippi generously offers its free and untaxed current, and enables the farmers to flank the unkind and unworthy combination which had conspired against it.

For while the Ice King may have plotted with the Elevator and

Railroad Kings the injury of the Western farmer, the Mississippi river, aided by a sagacious enterprise, has planned his outlet and escape. Every one is familiar with the use and progress of our preparation to entertain the Western grain trade. First, the barge line shipment in bulk. Then the erection of splendid elevators, with free wharves, at New Orleans and at Cairo. Thus far every provision has been made for the new commerce. It was only necessary, as at the wedding feast, that the guests should be bidden. It is not very hard to change what used to be called channels of trade. They change upon an exhibition of a more favorable schedule of time and freights. This truth has unhappily been made manifest to us by the transportation by artificial lines of 6,000,000 tons between the West and Atlantic ports. We are making a similiar exhibit of the superior advantages of the Balize outlet. It is producing the effect of convincing both the producer and consumer of Western provisions that it is the best mode of intercourse for a part, if not for the whole year. We will give some evidence. 1. That the Mississippi is the best and cheapest outlet for Western grain. 2. That shippers and consignees abroad are now taking steps to employ this outlet.

We extract, with much pleasure, the statement of Hon. Mr. Sypher, of Louisiana, recently made in Congress upon the Niagara Ship Canal Bill. We do so that we may sustain the general accuracy of this statement, made in our behalf, by conclusive proof of its correctness:

"Among the notable features of the discussion, Gen. Sypher, of Louisiana, said grain was now being shipping from St. Louis to New York via New Orleans at seventeen cents per bushel less than via Chicago and Buffalo, and to Liverpool at twenty cents less per bushel via New Orleans than via New York, and in one-third less time."

It is certainly very important to the commercial interest of New Orleans that the statement so favorable should have been thus published in the halls of Congress, and with the prestige of representative responsibility. It is a valuable, an authentic and a just advertisement. It is certainly our duty to the merchants of New Orleans to substantiate this important assurance. The assertion can thus go to the commercial world with indisputable proof which can, if controverted, be still farther confirmed. We accordingly subjoin two statements, the first of which is copied from the circular of S. A. Stockdale & Co., of New Orleans. We may remark as an assurance of the character of this statement, that Mr. Stockdale was recently Assistant Collector of this port, much esteemed by our merchahts for his integrity and business capacity, and that he is a Western man perfectly familiar with the grain trade of Chicago. We are satisfied that upon comparing the figures of this statement with those upon a similar shipment, made at this season by rail from the West to New York, the estimate of Mr. Sypher will be more than made good.

STATEMENT OF COST OF CORN AT NEW ORLEANS, NEW YORK AND LIVERPOOL BY RAIL AND RIVER ROUTE TO NEW ORLEANS.

Cost at country station, say	40 c.
Freight to Cairo, (average)	17 c
Transfer at Cairo	02 c.
Freight and insurance to New Orleans	10 c.
Elevator charges and commissions in New Orleans	03 c.
Cost in New Orleans, free of storage, twenty days	72c.

THROUGH SHIPMENT TO NEW YORK.

Cost in New Orleans	72 c.
Freight and insurance	19¼c.
Elevator charges and commissions in New York	05 c.
Cost in New York, free of first storage	96¼c.

THROUGH SHIPMENT TO LIVERPOOL.

Cost in New Orleans per bushel of 56 lbs	72 c.	
Exchange 147 per cent. is equivalent to f. o. b. per quarter in New Orleans	18s. 11d.	
Freight and primage, by sail 12d. per bushel of 60 lbs	8s. 5d.	
F. o. b. in Liverpool by sail (without insurance)		27s. 4d.
Freight and primage by steam 15d. per bush. of 56 lbs. (difference)		2s. 2d.
F. o. b, in Liverpool by steam (without insurance)		29s. 6d.

S. A. STOCKDALE & CO.,
74 Magazine street, New Orleans.

This estimate is corroborated by another, furnished us from a most intelligent and influential source. It is as follows :

At the price at which corn can now be purchased in Illinois it can be delivered in the elevator at New Orleans at	65c. for 56 lbs.
Add for commission and shipping charges	05c.
Cost f. o. b. in New Orleans	70c. for 56 lbs.
Equivalent to $6 per quarter of 480 lbs	
Which, with exchange at 147, is equivalent to	18s. 4d.
Add ocean freight, 10d. for 60 lbs., and primage	7s.
Actual cost f. o. b. in Liverpool	25s. 4d.

The latest quotations from Liverpool are 35s. 9d. to 36s. 6d. per quarter.

This would seem a satisfactory profit.

We have heretofore stated that an order has been received here for the purchase of 300,000 bushels of Western wheat, and that it is being executed in the upper West. We yesterday received the evidence that two shipments, contained in seventy cars, had arrived at Cairo for delivery by barge to vessels at this port. The Illinois Central Railroad Company, which is the pioneer in this enterprise, has guaranteed the release of its whole freights on this experimental shipment if the cost of the sale and delivery over this route shall render such release in whole or in part necessary. This will, of itself, involve an economy of some sixty thousand dollars. We do not see why grain dealers should hold back in the face of such profits as have been demonstrated. There is a larger amount of tonnage in

this port than there is cotton freights for There is a still larger amount on its way to this port. Here are all the elements, why not put them together at once?

We have seen letters from English houses which offer to sell to an American company the steamships to stock a weekly line between New Orleans and Liverpool, provided the Americans will take one-half of the stock, estimated at one and a quarter million of dollars, to be subscribed on our part. The inquiries which have been made of New Orleans by Liverpool merchants, personally and by letter, show a deep and deepening interest in a grain route which not only offers an outlet at a season when all others are closed, but shows a margin of profit sufficient, if established by experience, to decide the transfer of this stupendous commerce.

We have one word for our own merchants. They have seen Western men and Western means explore the advantages of this new trade in bulk grain by this outlet. They have seen all the facilities of transportation by barge, and of transfer by machinery, furnished by men from St. Louis, Milwaukee and Chicago. Can we now do nothing towards building up this weekly communication with Liverpool? We have been very poor, it is true. We are only rich now in possession of what Dr. Johnson said of Thrale's Brewery, "the potentiality of riches beyond the dreams of avarice." But we must do something ourselves. In our juvenile days the boys used to hold their nocturnal frolics at the room of one poor fellow, who met their contributions of cards, egg-nog and candles, by subscribing the "room and water." We wish New Orleans to do something more in this grand organization for changing the commerce of the American West. We must subscribe something more than the "room and water" of this grand festival of the nations who will meet and fraternize on our levee A very small contribution from each one who is interested—and who is not?—will secure the ocean steamship line, and New Orleans will vindicate the destiny for which nature designed her—the Constantinople of this continent.

ART. XIV.—BRITISH HONDURAS.

ITS HISTORY, TRADE AND NATURAL RESOURCES.

[By Mr. Chief Justice Temple.]

(Continued.)

The seasons, like most tropical countries, are the wet and the dry; the former commences in the month of June and continues until the end of February. The latter begins in the month of March and ends in the latter part of June. During the dry season there is scarcely ever a drop of rain; the ground becomes parched and hard, and vegetation ceases, except where streams and creeks irrigate the land. The wet season is ushered in with violent winds from the east, torrents of rain, and terrific lightning. It must not

be supposed, however, that because eight months in the year are denominated the wet season, that it is always raining during that period. After the first three weeks of that season, there is much fine weather, it being sometimes perfectly dry for a month together, and there is very little thunder and lightning after the first storm. The heaviest and most continued rain, but unaccompanied by thunder, falls in November, December, and January, when cold north winds prevail. A record of the rain which fell in the year 1848 will give an idea of the average amount:

	Inches.		Inches.
April	———	October	4 8-10
May	2 5-10	November	9 6-10
June	4 3-10	December	6 7-10
July	3 3-10	January	2 7-10
August	0 6-10	February	4 2-10
September	8 2-10	March	———

The temperature ranges from 68° to 86°, although it is sometimes as high as 90° and sometimes as low as 56°. The following is a table of the temperature of the year before mentioned:

	Max.	Min.
April	89 deg.	74 deg.
May	89	75
June	90	77
July	90	78
August	90	78
September	91	76
October	87	75
November	85	68
December	86	75
January	82	66
February	85	73
March	83	74

British Honduras appears to be out of the range of hurricanes, which generally expend their violence upon the windward islands; and earthquakes, which have, at different periods, caused such havoc in the Central American States, never exhibit themselves beyond a very gentle trembling of the ground, too slight to do any injury. The climate is exceedingly damp, but that arises principally from the circumstance of the country being, for the most part, uncleared. Epidemics—with the exception of cholera, which is no respecter of places—never visit Belize. Cases of yellow fever do frequently occur, but they make their appearance like any sporadic complaint, never assuming an endemic character. It might be inferred from this circumstance that Honduras is a very healthy country, but such is not the case. It is a sapper and miner, and carries on its work of destruction unseen, and almost unfelt, and its effects are only perceived when the hair drops off, the teeth decay, the vision becomes impaired, and the physical and mental energies succumb. However, there can be little doubt, that if the country were cleared, and cultivation more extended, the causes of this gradual and imperceptible decline of the constitution would be in a great measure removed. Much, also, depends upon the mode of

life. If a person is prudent and temperate in his style of living, he may, to a great extent, escape the enervating influence of the climate. There is a gentleman in England at this present moment, eighty-five years of age, who lived in Honduras for upwards of forty years, during which time his occupations frequently took him amidst the most unhealthy localities. But, unfortunately, Honduras is a country where all kinds of intoxicating liquors are very cheap, and where a man is always thirsty. The consequence is obvious. The prevailing disease is, in reality, alcohol. Take away that pernicious fluid, and men would live as long in the tropics as in European climates.

At a very early period, as far back as the Protectorate, the various kays in the Bay of Honduras were the resorts of pirates and buccaneers; and many a wild adventure, many a midnight carouse, many a deed of blood, have those little isles been witness to, when Dampier, and other free companions of the ocean, committed their depredations in the Carribean Sea. That celebrated navigator, who wrote an account of his voyage to the Bay of Honduras in the year 1674, gives some amusing sketches of the proceedings of those early settlers. Speaking of the logwood trade, he says: "This trade had its rise from the decay of privateers; for after Jamaica was well settled by the English, and a peace established with Spain, the privateers, who had hitherto lived upon plundering the Spaniards, were put to their shifts, for they had prodigally spent whatever they got, and now, wanting subsistence, were forced either to go to Petit Guavas, where the privateer trade still continued, or into the Bay of Logwood. The more industrious of them came hither; yet even these, though they could work well enough if they pleased, yet they thought it dry business to toil at cutting wood. They were good marksmen, and so took more delight in hunting; but neither of those employments affected them so much as privateering; therefore they often made sallies out in small parties amongst the nearest Indian towns, where they plundered and brought away the Indian women to serve them at their huts, and sent their husbands to be sold at Jamaica; besides, they had not their drinking bouts forgot, and would still spend £30 or £40 at a sitting aboard the ships that came hither from Jamaica, carousing and firing off guns three, or four days together, and though afterwards many sober men came into the Bay to cut wood, yet by degrees the old standers so debauched them, that they could never settle themselves under any civil government, but continued in their wickedness till the Spaniards, encouraged by their careless rioting, fell upon them and took most of them singly, in their own huts, and carried them away prisoners to Campeachy or La Vera Cruz." The same author gives an amusing account of one of their drinking bouts. He says: "As soon as we came to anchor, we sent our boat ashore to buy provisions to regale ourselves after our long fatigue and fasting, and were very busy going to drink a bowl of punch, when, unexpectedly, Captain Rawlins, commander of a small New England vessel, and one

Mr. John Hooker, who had been in the bay a twelve-month, cutting logwood, and was now coming up to Jamaica to sell it, came aboard and were invited into the cabin to drink with us ; the bowl had not yet been touched (I think there might be six quarts in it,) but Mr. Hooker being drunk to, by Captain Rawlins, who pledged Captain Hudswell, and having the bowl in his hand, said that he was under an oath to drink but three draughts of strong liquor a day, and putting the bowl to his head, turned it off at one draught, and so making himself drunk, disappointed us of our expectations, till we made another bowl."

It is generally believed—what will not people believe ?—that stores of treasure, the ill-gotten wealth of those bandits of the deep, are hidden amongst the kays in the Bay of Honduras ; that huge sea chests, studded with nail and clamped with iron, containing old doubloons and dollars, ingots of gold and silver, antique dresses of silk and velvet, with slashed sleeves and point lace, ancient guns and swords, curiously carved and richly mounted pistols, costly jewels, and all the other heterogeneous materials of a pirate's cave, lie imbedded in their lonely beaches. It has been supposed that the river Belize was called after one of these pirates, a Scotchman named Wallis, but that is not at all probable. Rivers and mountains seldom lose their ancient names, and that river has always been called Belize by the native Indians. Our free-traders, however, soon made the discovery that the country, in which they were unlicensed settlers, was rich in the spontaneous production of various dyewoods, of which logwood was the chief. It was not to be expected that men who made no scruple in plundering and murdering the subjects of his most Catholic Majesty, would hesitate to rob his Catholic Majesty himself. They accordingly laid aside the cutlass as an implement of war, and shouldered the axe, and began, in good earnest, to cut down the logwood of the King of Spain. The wood cutters of the present day never go into the bush without a machete to clear away the underwood and protect them against the attack of wild animals. This machete is, in reality, a heavy cutlass, and there is no doubt it descended from their piratical ancestors. It was no use for the King of Spain to sing "Woodman Spare That Tree," the marauders went merrily to work cutting down his logwood, which they sent to England, where it fetched a high price. Captain Dampier says : "It was worth from £100 to £110 per ton." At first they did not know the value of it, and Dampier says : "After the English had taken Jamaica, and began to cruise in this bay, they found many vessels laden with it, but not knowing its value then, they either set them adrift, or fired them, saving only the nails and ironwork, a thing now usual among the privateers, taking no notice at all of the cargo, till Captain James having taken a great ship laden with it, and brought her home to England, to fit her for a privateer, beyond his expectations, sold his wood at a great rate, though he valued it at so little before as to burn of it all his passage home. After his return to Jamaica, the English visiting this bay, found out the place where it grew, and if they met

no prize at sea, they would go to Champeton river, where they were certain to find large piles cut to their hand and brought to the sea-side, ready to be shipped off. This was their common practice, till at last the Spaniards sent soldiers thither to prevent these depredations." In a short time an exceedingly profitable trade was established with this country in that article. The buccaneers now settled down as regular traders, cutting wood, and shipping it to England in a perfectly mercantile manner, but still, so far adhering to their old practices, that they never hesitated to seize by violence what was not peaceably conceded to them.

The forcible occupation of a large tract of country, avowedly in the territory of the King of Spain, was not at first openly defended, although not disapproved of, by the British Government, for the dyewoods, which it produced in great abundance, were objects of no slight importance to English manufacturers. They were at length, after many struggles, so firmly settled, that Spain, which had then begun to display evidences of its decaying strength, was compelled to acknowledge them, and by the treaty of Madrid, in 1670, it was agreed "that the serene king of Great Britain, his heirs and successors, should have, hold, keep, and enjoy forever, with plenary right of sovereignty, dominion, possession, and propriety, all those lands, regions, islands, colonies, and places whatsoever, being or situated in the West Indies, or in any part of America, which the said King of Great Britain and his subjects do at present hold and possess, so that in regard thereof, or upon any color or pretence whatsoever, nothing more may, or ought to be urged, nor any question, or controversy be ever moved concerning the same hereafter."

Notwithstanding this treaty, the Spanish inhabitants were determined, if possible, to drive the English out of the country, and frequent and bloody skirmishes took place between the two people, which almost always ended to the disadvantage of the former.

At length, in the month of April, 1754, the Spaniards were determined to make a vigorous attempt to dislodge the English, and conscious of their inability to approach them from the sea, owing to their ignorance of the numerous reefs and shoals, which rendered the navigation of these waters extremely difficult to any but those who were intimately acquainted with them, they resolved to attack them from the land side, and for that purpose, assembled a large force at the city of Peten. Fifteen hundred men were marched against the English, and were encountered by a gallant band of two hundred and ten, the greatest portion of whom were slaves, and completely defeated. Before the arrival of the main body of the English, eight men defended a small fort for two days against the attack of the whole Spanish force. After this unsuccessful attempt of the Spaniards to dispossess the English of the country which they had appropriated, the latter were left unmolested for several years, and in 1763 a treaty was signed in Paris, by which it was agreed on the part of his Britannic Majesty, that all fortifications in the Bay of Honduras, erected by his subjects, should be demolished ;

and on the part of his Catholic Majesty, that the English should not be disturbed in their occupations of cutting, loading, and carrying away logwood. To insure the observance of this treaty, the British Government sent out Sir W. Burnaby, who not only settled the limits within which the English were to confine their wood cutting operations, but, following the example of "the great Lycurgus," as he was called on a recent occasion, he composed for them a code of laws, in which, perhaps, there was as much wisdom as in those of the Spartan legislator. They might, however, be sufficiently adapted to the rude people for whose government they were designed. Captain Henderson, writing in 1804, thus speaks of them: "When these regulations were, therefore, enforced, it must be believed that it was merely intended that some direction or restraint should be employed on a description of persons who had before lived without respect to rules of any kind, and whose irregularities, murders, piracies, and atrocities of every sort, were continually perpetrated with a barbarous indifference, because punishment was unknown."

[To be continued]

ART. XVI.—DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

CULTURE OF THE RAMIE PLANT.

We have been kindly furnished by Col. Marshall J. Smith, of New Orleans, with a letter from Hon. Horace Capron, Commissioner of the Department of Agriculture, at Washington, D. C. It is one of the most succinct explanations on this interesting subject. Now that the economy of labor is so important an object with Southern planters, a staple which takes so much of its value from the sun and the soil, and which can be perfected for market by machinery, is worth the consideration of every planter, and of every other patriot.—[Ed. Review.

Department of Agriculture,
Washington, D. C., January 22, 1869.

Dear Sir—In reply to your letter of the 15th, I have to state that the annual report for 1867 is not yet out of press. A copy will be sent you as soon as we commence distribution.

To your question concerning the manner of cultivating the *Bahmeria nivea*, or ramie plant, I reply: A loose, dry soil is selected for a bed in which to start the plants. The seeds are mixed with dry earth and sown broadcast, and then brushed in, lightly with a broom. Matting is suspended over the bed for protection until the plant is two inches high. When three inches high, the plants are transplanted in rows four or five inches apart. Watering is kept up, four or five times each day, for about ten days after setting the plants, and only occasionally afterwards. The plants are protected from the cold of winter by a covering of manure, which is removed in March, and watering, in dry weather, is resumed. In the fourth, third, and sometimes in the second year, the plants are ready for cutting. After a plantation is established, three crops per year may be secured. Bernito Roezl, of New Orleans, La., is the inventor of a machine for separating the fibre.

Very truly, yours,

Horace Capron,
Commissioner.

Marshall J. Smith, Esq., New Orleans, La.

EDITORIAL.

To Hon. Charles Gayarre, for a copy of his valuable History of the French, Spanish, and American Domination in the Province Territory and State of Louisiana. For veritable lessons in history, for events of the most thrilling and romantic character, we know no work which exceeds this. The history of Louisiana is not more instructive to the statesman than suggestive to the writer of fiction. We know no field in America so rich in actual, and probable events of social life, and commend its study to the poet and novelist. Some Irving, or Walter Scott, will arise in the South, who will, from the strange contact and connection of races, hostile elsewhere, in religion, government, sociology, deduce the most interesting features of human passion. Longfellow has opened the way with "Evangeline." This surface ore shows the wealth of the mine. There can be no magazine of richer, or more genuine material for this pursuit than the "History of French, Spanish, and American Domination in Louisiana," by Hon. Charles Gayarre.

Gas Lamps.—We have used for some weeks one of these excellent lights, furnished by Mr. Jervey, the agent of the company, No. 100 Camp street and do not hesitate to express the opinion that it is an infinite improvement on, the whole family of chemical oil lamps. It burns with a pure and soft light, very favorable to the eyes of a student or of a sempstress. It makes no grease, requires no cleaning, and seems absolutely incapable of explosion. It unites, apparently, all the advantages of gas with a far superior economy.

Hogarth's Engravings Engraved.—We take pleasure in expressing our thanks to Mr. Key for a copy of the engravings of Hogarth, published in London and New York, by the Printing and Publishing Company, London, and at 199 Broadway, New York. We have always regarded Hogarth as much more than an humorist. He deserves to be classed amongst the most eminent and useful moralists of England, although he has used the graver instead of the pen. Before tracts or colporteurs were invented, he devised a mode of placing before the popular eye the most appalling consequences of vice and folly. He has painted the transgressor who always preferred evil to good associations; the prodigal who never returned to the ways or home of his infancy; the silly coquette, who brings death and misery in the train, of her pleasures; the selfish parent, who sacrifices the honor and happiness of a child to a mercenary marriage. He has yielded to the prejudices of race and religion so far as to perpetuate by the pencil the absurd prejudices which the priests and partisans of his day taught. But, altogether, we know no objects of a pictorial nature which can be studied with better moral effect, nor any which will so soon attract the reflection of the ignorant and thoughtless. This edition of Hogarth's works, issued in a cheap and popular form, conveys, through the excellence of the engravings, a most accurate idea of the originals. Their usefulness is enlarged by the explanatory text which impresses on the mind of youth the moral lessons the pictures were intended by Hogarth to teach.

Emigration to Honduras.—Our former fellow-citizen, Mr. Jas. M. Putnam, in years gone by a prominent and highly respected merchant of New Orleans, in 1866, settled in Belize, British Honduras, and obtained from the Colonial Government for himself and associates, on very favorable terms, the grant of a very large and valuable area of territory, embracing a splendid seaport and several streams, with a soil capable of producing sugar, tobacco, rice, corn and vegetables, and fruits in the richest abundance. Samples of the products of British Honduras were exhibited last year at our Agricultural Fair, and attracted much attention by their variety and value.

Mr. Putnam is at the head of the "Putnam Immigration Association," founded on the Honduras Colonial laws, and he is here now to endeavor to sell the lands to planters and farmers, as will appear from the advertisement. We are authorized, by an examination of the contract between the British Government and Mr. Putnam, to assure all emigrants who may go upon these lands and comply with the terms of settlement published by him, that even if any disappointment should occur to the grantees of the Putnam Immigration Association, the colonists who comply with their terms will not be molested by the Government. Their title will be confirmed according to the Colonial laws. We say this, not from any doubt of the title of the Association, but to satisfy settlers that they run no risk of deception, or of suffering from deception.